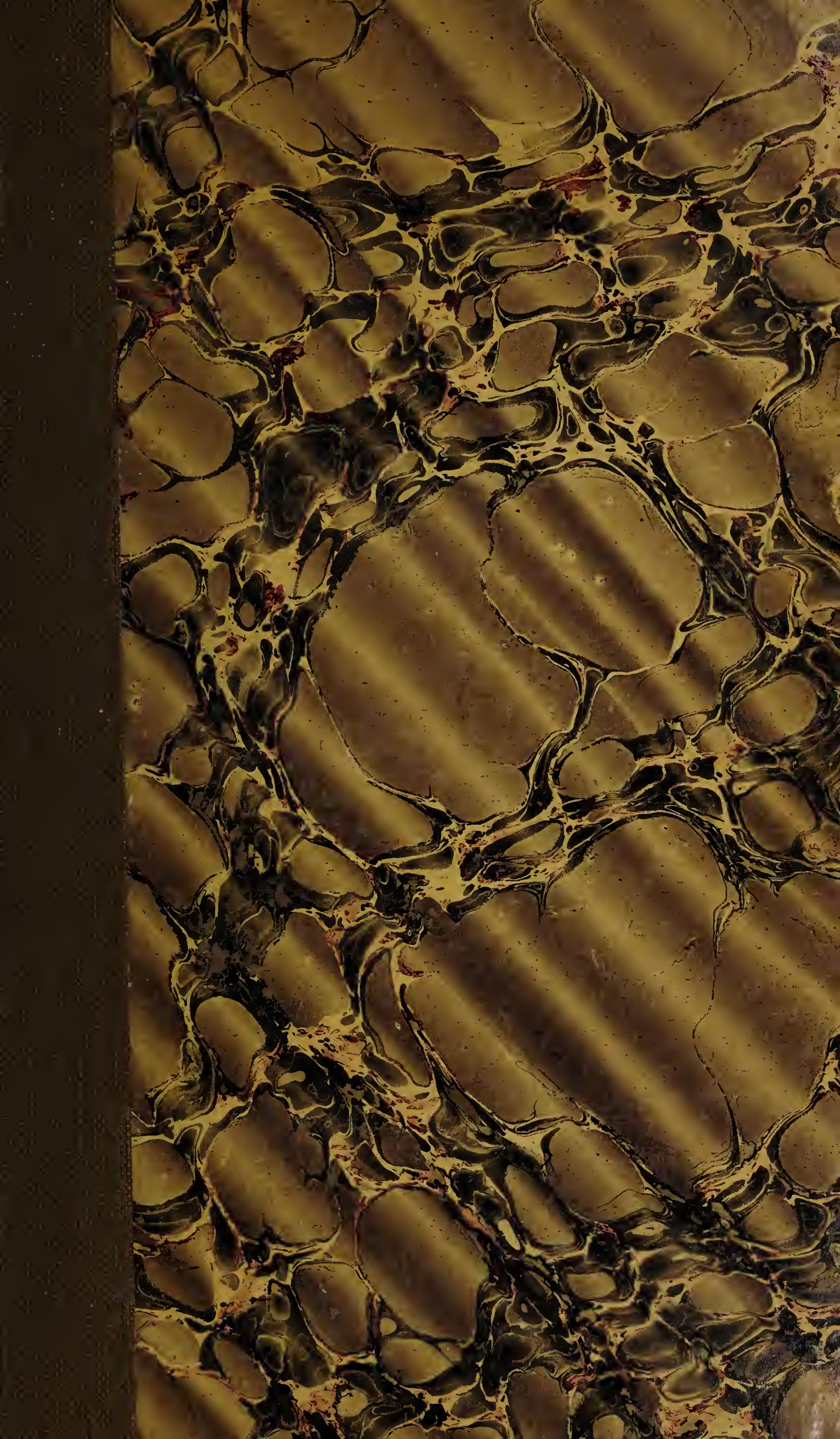




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DOCTOR CHARLES DUNCOMBE'S

R E P O R T

UPON THE SUBJECT OF

E D U C A T I O N, .

MADE TO THE

PARLIAMENT OF UPPER CANADA,

25TH FEBRUARY, 1836.

THROUGH THE COMMISSIONERS

DOCTORS MORRISON AND BRUCE,

APPOINTED BY A RESOLUTION

OF THE

HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY

IN 1835,

TO OBTAIN INFORMATION UPON

THE SUBJECT OF

EDUCATION, &c.

TORONTO: M. REYNOLDS, PRINTER.

1836.



Notice.

DR. C. DUNCOMBE gives notice that he will on Monday next move this House to go into Committee of the Whole to allow him to move for a grant of a sum of money to defray the expense of sending two persons to the United States to obtain information respecting the building and conducting a Lunatic Asylum; any recent improvements in Roads, Canals, Harbors, and Light Houses; Schools and Colleges; Currency, Banks and Finance; Commerce and intercourse with the United States or other countries.

Resolution.

RESOLVED, That there be granted to His Majesty the sum of one hundred and fifty pounds to pay the expense that three commissioners may be put to in obtaining the best information, plans and estimates of a Lunatic Asylum, and such information as they may deem necessary relative to the management and good government of such institutions, and also respecting the system and management of Schools and Colleges, and such other matters as are connected with the interest, welfare, and prosperity of this Province; and to Report to this House the result of their labor and investigation, at its next Session, and that Messrs. Drs. C. Duncombe, Morrison and Bruce be commissioners for the said purpose.

COMMITTEE ROOM, HOUSE OF ASSEMBLY, }
16th April, 1836.

RESOLVED, That we, two of the Commissioners appointed by a resolution of the Commons House of Assembly, at its late Session, to obtain information relative to a Lunatic Asylum and other matters, agree that Doctor Charles Duncombe, one of the Commissioners by the said resolution also appointed, should go on any journey to the United States or elsewhere, to obtain such information as is desired by the said resolution.

[Signed.]

T. D. MORRISON.
WILLIAM BRUCE.

A Copy of a Letter from the Commissioners to the Honorable the Speaker of the House of Assembly.

TORONTO, 24TH FEBRUARY, 1836.

SIR,

Doctors Duncombe, Morrison and Bruce being by a resolution of the Honorable the House of Assembly, appointed commissioners to inquire into "the system & management of schools

and colleges," in order to report fully upon the systems of education pursued in the United States, one of our Commissioners, Dr. Charles Duncombe, was requested and authorised to visit that country, acquire a knowledge of the subject, and report thereon. That Gentleman has done so to our most entire satisfaction, and we have the honor herewith to hand you the result of his arduous labors and minute inquiries, in the documents now presented, viz:—*A Report upon Education*, accompanied by a Bill for the *Regulation of Common Schools in this Province*: this being our Second Report.

We have the honor to be, Sir,

Your most obedient humble servants,

T. D. MORRISON

WM. BRUCE.

To the Honorable
the Speaker of the
Commons House of Assembly.

*Letter from Mr. Secretary Joseph, transmitting Lord
Glenelg's Despatch, &c. to Dr. Duncombe.*

GOVERNMENT HOUSE, TORONTO, {
19th March, 1836. }

SIR,—I am commanded by the Lieutenant Governor to forward to you the accompanying copy of a Despatch recently received by him from the Secretary of State for the Colonies (7 January 1836, No. 11.) together with the documents* referred to in it as requested in your communication of the 25th of October last, addressed to the late Lieutenant Governor.

I have the honor to be, Sir,

Your most obedient, humble servant,

J. JOSEPH.

* REPORTS:

Superior Courts of Common Law.

Practice of Chancery.

Lunatic Asylums.

Education.

Charles Duncombe, Esq. M.P.P.

Acting Commis'r for obtaining information on various subjects.

No. 11.

[Copy.]

{ Downing-street,
{ 7th January, 1836.

Sir.—I have had the honor to receive Sir John Colborne's despatch of the 4th November, No. 61, enclosing the copy of a letter from Mr. Duncombe, one of the commissioners appointed by the House of Assembly of Upper Canada to obtain information respecting certain questions of public interest to the Province, and in reply I take the earliest opportunity of transmitting for that Gentleman's assistance, copies of the Parliamentary Reports for which he has applied.

I have, &c. [Signed.] GLENELG.

Lieutenant Governor

SIR FRANCIS BOND HEAD, K. C. H.

REPORT.



To the Honorable the Commissioners appointed to obtain certain information during the recess of Parliament.

Doctors MORRISON & BRUCE,

GENTLEMEN,

In obedience to your instructions to me at our meeting at the close of the last session of Parliament, I proceeded immediately to the United States, to make observations and collect information in the best manner I could, upon the various subjects which this special committee had been required to investigate, but feeling the importance, if not the absolute necessity, of combining practical skill with extensive and critical observation upon the great variety of subjects entrusted to my care, I obtained introductions to the Governors and heads of the departments in many of the States, and at Washington, to whom I feel myself in duty bound to acknowledge the great obligations I am under to them for their liberal indulgence and kind attendance to my numerous enquiries, for the zeal and philanthropy with which they communicated their own ideas upon the subjects of their particular departments, and furnished me with letters and references to men of science and to reports and recent publications upon those subjects respectively. Their names deserve to be recorded and their memories to live in the affections of a grateful public—but the immensity of the number of those persons who have aided my inquiries precludes the possibility of my even naming them; and from the variety

and multiplicity of subjects to which my attention was directed by the Resolution of the honorable the House of Assembly at its last session, and by your resolution honoring me with the situation of acting commissioner for procuring information upon certain subjects, I have been unable, as the importance of the subject of education required, to condense and digest the information placed within my reach by the heads of departments and officers of the literary institutions which I visited during my journeying in the Western, Middle, Eastern, and some of the Southern States, where every opportunity was afforded me for accomplishing my object, by the many valuable industrious labourers in the cause of science and literature who aided me in my inquiries as well by their opinions, freely expressed upon the literary institutions of foreign countries, where many of them had studied, and the honors of which had long been their boast, as by the progress of the same sciences and arts in America, under their own immediate superintendence, as also by books, pamphlets, and reports collected or made by authority of the different Legislatures of the states, by the different literary institutions, or by the philanthropy and enterprise of individuals, generally made by practical men, and after long and careful investigations, both in Europe and America, of the subjects upon which they have practically treated, especially where popular education has been made the subject of legislation.

In this report I have made free use of the information contained in the written and printed documents placed at my disposal, as well as the verbal information afforded me by those gentlemen who have so materially aided me in my pursuits. Upon this point I feel the obligations I am under to many gentlemen in various parts

of the Union, and had commenced my report with an account of the information derived from the Rev. Mr. Peers, who had by the authority of the state of Kentucky, travelled, examined, and reported upon the subject of education in several other states to the Legislature of Kentucky, and by expressing my gratitude to Lieutenant Governor Morehead, acting governor of the state, for the philanthropy, zeal, and intelligence with which he freely communicated to me the information I desired upon this and many other subjects, connected with my inquiries; as well as to Professors Dudley and Caldwell of the Transylvanian University, but I found my report would have necessarily extended to an unpardonable length, so as never to have been read; and thereby the object for which this information was desired would have been defeated; I find myself therefore compelled to make such extracts from all the papers and other sources of information as have been placed within my reach as in my humble judgement would best conduce to the object designed—that of placing before the honorable the House of Assembly in as condensed a form as possible, the present state of the literary institutions most worthy of our imitation both in Europe and America.

In doing this I shall endeavour to be as concise as possible, using the opinions and even language of other men where they express my views of the subjects upon which they treat: the books, reports, addresses, and papers from which I have made the most lengthy and important extracts, are the reports and addresses made by the officers and members of Yale College—of the common school committees Reports of most of the Western, Middle, and Eastern states, especially the cities of Boston, New York, Albany, Philadelphia, Baltimore and

Cincinnati, as well as from their reports and proceedings upon the subject of their infant schools city free schools, Grammar schools, literary institutes, eclectic institutes, and high schools, as well as monatorial schools, Lancaster schools, Manual Labor schools, primary schools, and writing schools, among which the regulations of the school committee of Boston is worthy of some particular notice—an essay upon female education by Catharine E. Beecher, written at the request of the American Lyceum, New York—an address proposing a plan of female education by Mrs. Willard, of the long established and highly respectable female seminary of the city of Troy, in the state of New York—a report from the Rev. R. O. Peers, of Louisville which was well worthy to have been copied had the limits of my report admitted it, as well as his prospectus of the eclectic institute established by him at Lexington, and carried into successful operation—Dr. Fisk's inaugural address delivered at the opening of the Wesleyan University upon the science of education, in Middletown, Connecticut—An address of the Trustees of the New England Institution for the education of the blind—Dr. Drake's discourse on the character and prospects of the West, delivered to the Union Literary society of Miami University, Oxford, Ohio, at their ninth anniversary, 23rd September, 1834—Journal of the proceedings of a convention of Physicians of Ohio, held in the city of Columbus in 1835. Debates in the Assembly of the State of New-York, May 1835, on the bill relative to the rights and competency of witnesses—and an address on the vice of gambling delivered to the medical pupils of Transylvania University in 1834, by Professor Charles Caldwell, M. D. Report of the Committee on Education to the Legislature of Ken-

tucky. Thoughts on the spirit of improvement, the selection of its objects, and its proper direction, being an address delivered, 1835, to the Agatherian and Erosophian Societies of Nashville University, Tennessee, by Professor Charles Caldwell, M. D. Daniel Drake, M. D. discourse on the Philosophy of Discipline in families, schools, and colleges, delivered before the Western Institute and College of professional teachers in Cincinnati, Ohio. Inaugural addresses delivered at the opening of Morrison College, Lexington, by the Rev. B. O. Peers, President of the University. Four annual reports of the proceedings of the Western Institute and College of professional teachers, Cincinnati. The annual reports of the Dayton and other academic and manual labor institutions. The Rev. Mr. Marshall's observations upon literature and science. Report of the regents of the University of the State of New-York, on the education of Common School Teachers, Albany, 1835. Report to the House of Representatives by the Committee on Education, 1835. Digest of the laws and rules of exercise and discipline in Renselaer Institute. The laws of several States of the Union upon the subject of education. Report on the state of public institutions in Prussia, addressed to the Count de Montalivet, Peer of France, Minister of Public Instruction and ecclesiastical affairs by M. Victor Cousin, Peer of France, Councillor of State, Professor of Philosophy, Member of the Institute and of the Royal Council of Public Instruction, translated by Sarah Austin. Practical education, by Maria Edgeworth and Richard Level Edgeworth F.R.S.& M.R.I.A. The Schoolmaster's friend, with the Committee man's guide, containing suggestions on common education, modes of teaching

and governing, by Theodore Dwight Junr. Dr. Drake's edition for 1835 of the transactions of the western College of Professional Teachers. Thoughts on Physical education, being a discourse delivered to a convention of teachers at Lexington, by Charles Caldwell, M. D. A view of the elementary principles of education, founded on the study of the nature of man, by G. Spurzhiem, M. D., of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians in London. The introductory discourse, and the lectures delivered before the American Institute of instruction in Boston, 1834. The District School, by J. Orville Taylor. Discourses and addresses on the subject of American history, arts and literature, by Julian C. Verplank. Journal of the proceedings of a convention of literary and scientific gentlemen, held in the Common Council Chamber in the city of New York; together with occasional references to and extracts from the common standard works upon the subject of education.

The first principles of the system recommended in this report with regard to common schools, schools for the education of the poorer classes, and for the education of teachers or the *normal Schools*, made their appearance almost simultaneously in Great Britain and on the continent, as appears by the voluminous reports of Lord Brougham, (copies of which have been politely furnished me by Lord Glenelg,) and by Mr. Dick's very able and splendid report upon the common Schools in some parts of Scotland, and by M. Cousin's reports of the schools in Prussia and Germany, and Bulver's observations upon education as a prevention of crime in France, so that when Lord Brougham declared that "the Schoolmaster was abroad" the remark applied with equal truth to some parts of the Continent,

and to Scotland as to England. The glimmering of this beacon light was soon seen across the ocean, and lighted up a similar flame in the United States; Commissioner after Commissioner was sent to Scotland and to England by the authority of their State Legislatures to light their lamps at the fountain of science, that the whole continent of America might be ignited by the flame. In all free governments the welfare and safety of the government depend upon the national character of the inhabitants, and that national character depends upon their national education. In the United States, where they devote much time and expense towards the promotion of literature, they are equally destitute of a system of national education with ourselves, and although by their greater exertion to import the improvements made in Great Britain and on the continent, and their numerous attempts at systematising these modern modes of education so as to lay the foundation for a future perfect system of education adapted to the institutions of that country, they have placed themselves in advance of us in their common school system, yet after all their schools seemed to me to be good schools upon bad or imperfect systems; they seem groping in the dark, no instruction in the past to guide the future, no beacon light, no council of wise men to guide them more than we have, upon the subject of common schools; our schools want in character, they want respectability, they want permanency in their character and in their support, their funds should be sufficient to interest all classes of the community in endeavoring to avail themselves of them; but whatever the amount should be it should not be subject to any contingency, as an annual vote of the Legislature; it should be so arranged that all the inhabitants should contribute some-

thing towards its continuance, and all those who are benefitted directly by it should pay, in proportion to such benefit a small sum, but quite enough to interest them in the prudent expenditure of their share of the school moneys. I hardly know whether I ought not to apologise to you and to the House of Assembly for the length to which this Report is necessarily extended; if it is thought by any that such an apology is required, I refer them to the importance of the subject as a certain, and I trust to all "lovers of learning" as a satisfactory apology. But this I do know, I ought to explain why this report is so imperfect and defective.—It has been principally prepared and drawn up at unseasonable hours, while the whole of the busy nation were at rest, during the constant hurry and extreme pressure of an immense accumulation of unprecedented important Parliamentary business, while I was required to prepare reports upon various other important subjects, as the Lunatic Asylum, Penitentiaries, Prisons and prison discipline, Banks and Currency, and Commerce. I am aware that the subject of this Report is one of hackneyed discussion. *The science of education.* Nevertheless, the improvements of the present age in this science, and the increased conviction of its paramount importance, as a correlate to others, give it something of the character of novelty; as an old mine which had been supposed to be nearly exhausted, suddenly discloses a new vein, richer and purer than any before, so this old subject may present new and promising aspects, and offer up fresh and rich veins of thought and experiment. Such indeed is the interest now excited on this subject as to move the whole literary world. The spirit of reform is abroad, and is reconnoitering the whole field of operation

with a vigilance and an energy that declares unequivocally, something must and *shall be done*. Nay, this work is already commenced, and, as Lord Brougham declares, "the Schoolmaster is abroad" Scotland has taken the lead, England is not far behind, Germany, Prussia, and France follow close in their wake, and enterprising, industrious, ambitious America, has launched her pinnace to contest for the palm with the old world, and in the United States important improvements have been introduced into the different grades of literary institutions. As antiquity is not always perfection, so innovation is not always improvement. While, therefore, we ought to be wholly uninfluenced by unprofitable traditions, however ancient and authoritative, we ought also to be equally guarded against doubtful and hazardous experiments, however specious and imposing.

Education should be directed in reference to two objects; the good of the individual educated, and the good of the world. The course to promote both objects, it is acknowledged, is nearly, if not quite, the same; but as men are too disposed to consider their own a separate interest, and are prompted by selfishness to act in exclusive reference to that interest, the only safe course is to provide for the education of youth in direct reference to the wants of the world. Thus every desirable object will be secured; for although a fatal error may result from consulting only what *appears* to the interest of the individual himself, yet he cannot be educated wrong for *any* of the purposes of life, who is judiciously educated in reference to the public good. Hence in establishing a system of education, reference should be had chiefly to the condition and general interests of the great family of man; and next in importance is fixing upon that system and those

principles of organization which are best adapted to the capacities of those who are to be taught, and the materials which it will be able to command in its operations, as teachers and assistants should be carefully noted. Then, having the proposed system, and the means of accomplishing it, in full view, aided by the light of past and existing experiment, it will be less difficult to introduce and establish the inductive system of education in this Province than it has been in any other part of the civilized world where it has been attempted.

I have said that in establishing literary institutions, reference should be had chiefly to the condition and interests of the world. This, it is true, is rather a principle of christianity than of worldly policy. It is founded however, on the true philosophy of our being, and is as much a dictate of individual, as of general interest. It is obviously the leading principle on which every Christian community should act. The world has had its infancy, its gradual development of character, its different stages of improvement in the arts and sciences, and its great variations in political governments and national ascendencies. Neither have these changes themselves been uniform, nor always for the better. Instead of a regular advancement of light, "shining more and more unto the perfect day," there has been an alternation, if not of night and day, at least of comparative light and darkness. It needs but a single attention to the subject to see that these changes and varieties must require a corresponding modification not only in the system of education, but also in the modes and means of instruction, and also in the course and character of the studies pursued. We must look then upon the world as it now is, and not as it has been. No philanthropist engaged in an

enterprise of permanent interest to future generations, is qualified for his work unless he can make accurate calculations for the future as well as for the present. In many respects the present condition and future prospects of the world differ from all its past history. And here I will notice, first, the extensive and increasing intercourse which is maintained between different and distant parts of the earth. This is owing chiefly to the interests of commerce; and is one instance out of many, in which the spirit of enterprise for gain and individual wealth is subservient to the great interests of humanity. The merchant, aided by the great improvements in navigation, and other facilities of intercourse, penetrates every sea, bay, and harbor, and visits almost every clime. With him he takes, at a comparative small expense, travellers of all descriptions; adventurers, men of leisure, and of wealth; as also philosophers and men of science who note the laws, and character, and literature of the people, and the geography and natural history of the country. From these and other causes the principle parts of the world are frequented by foreigners. In this way intelligence is communicated readily and constantly, and those who are separated from us by half the circumference of the globe become, as it were, our neighbors, and dwell among us. We thus acquire a common bond of interest, by which the different and distant nations are connected together. In consequence of some of almost every nation having visited foreign countries, in consequence of the dispersion of friends and acquaintances for the purposes of commerce, and other objects, in consequence of the investment of property abroad, and from various other causes, numerous connecting links bind distant nations together by a strong association. Thus

local prejudices are subsiding, the improvements of one nation are becoming the property of all and the strong national barriers that have so long retarded the progress of civilization and improvement are fast melting down. This bond of union is greatly strengthened by the interests of commerce, for by commerce a mutual check is laid upon the encroachments of nations on each other; and thus a ground of national, as well as of individual intercourse is formed, and the different parts of the great human family are connected by official and national alliances. The general interests of learning, and the mutual alliance of the friends of literature also greatly increase this general union. These, though scattered over the world, form a republic of themselves, and are drawn together by cords that no distance can attenuate, and bound by connexions that no varieties can sever. They all drink of the same fountains without jealousy and climb up the same intellectual elevations without envy; for the attainments of each are the property of all. True philosophy has in it nothing of *party* and *caste*. Its votaries sit together at the feet of their great teacher, the God of Nature humbly and patiently pushing the enquiry "What is truth," and the *eureka* of one individual or nation rings round the earth with the rapidity of the winds, and is speedily re-echoed from every enlightened land in responsive acclamations.

The religious enterprises of the Christian Church give another striking feature to the character of the present age. The facilities of intercourse already alluded to, connected with other circumstances, have given a great impetus to these enterprises, and the influence of this religion in return adds much to the strength of those increasing ties by which different nations are

bound to each other. The first principles of this religion is to count every man a brother. It looks abroad through the earth and says, "I am debtor, both to the Greeks and Barbarians, both to the wise and unwise." Its plants of benevolence therefore are bounded by no national lines or distinctions. It recognises a kingdom of a character and extent to comprehend and consolidate all other kingdoms, peoples and tongues; "a kingdom that shall never be destroyed." This kingdom is gaining strength and enlarging its operations; and wherever it goes it spreads the harmonising influences of its own spirit.

To the preceding characteristics of the present age, we may add the peculiar state of the political world. The advancement of political reform; the general movement among the people in different nations to assert their rights and secure their liberties; the increasing light on these subjects, are so much the topics of daily remark and of constant poetical and rhetorical declamation, that I need here only allude to them for the sake of shewing their relation to the varied subjects before us, and for the sake of shewing that in the political as well as in the religious world "the fields are white already for the harvest," yea, "the harvest is great and the skilful labourers are few."

And here before we advance further let it be observed that whether we view the subject by the light of history or by the light of revelation, or whether we consider the energetic character of those principles that are now in operation, we are in every case led to the same conclusion—that the march of the principles alluded to is onward, and if the proper means are used, will continue to be onward till the final renovation of our world.

But what has all this to do with the inductive system of education? Much every way—Education is to be second only to Christianity itself in carrying on this work. By this system and the education of teachers the youthful mind is disciplined, the arts and sciences are improved, the world is enlightened, and above all, by this an army of faithful, intelligent, enterprising, benevolent men are trained up, and sent forth to be leaders in the great enterprises of the day: I speak not now of one profession merely, ministers and merchants, lawyers and physicians, teachers and statesmen, farmers and mechanics, authors and artists, all are wanted in this work, and wanted in greater abundance than can be supplied. But they should be men of suitable attainments, and of a proper mould; and these depend much, very much, upon their education.

It has been supposed that there are too many in the learned professions already, and that therefore there are too many who obtain a liberal education. But this opinion is founded upon two errors:—One is that every liberally educated man must be above manual labor, and must therefore enter one of the learned professions; and the other is, that all who do enter those professions do it and have a right to do it from personal or family interests, and not for public good.—Whereas a liberal education ought not to unfit a man, either in *his physical constitution* or *his feelings*, for active business in any honest employment; and neither ought men who enter *any* of the learned professions, to excuse themselves from labor and privation for the good of the world. There is a great and pernicious error on this subject.

An education has a twofold object, namely, the perfection of the physical, intellectual, and moral powers of man, and the imparting to him a knowledge of the laws of his

being. Each of these parts may be divided into general and particular. Education is *general*, while it regards its subject merely as a being susceptible of improvement; and capable of receiving knowledge; and *particular* when its instructions are imparted, to qualify the pupil for some particular station and specific duties in life. It is plain that a portion of the education of all, especially in its earliest stages, must be general; but it is equally evident that a greater portion must be particular; and this is especially true of that part of education which consists in the imparting of knowledge. Life is so short, and man's power of acquiring and of retaining is so limited, that it would be a vain attempt to aim at making each know everything. Indeed, life is too short to master *one* science, or to become perfectly acquainted with one profession; and it is therefore much too short to master all, and yet much more too short to know all that can be known, and also to do all that ought to be done. The great object which we propose and recommend in this report upon the inductive system of education, is to remedy the defects of the present system, and prepare the rising generation for the regulation and enjoyment of free, civil, and religious institutions. We think the signs of the times and the present character of the world, demand this.—Hence, *now*, whatever may have been the state of things heretofore, it is criminal to acquire knowledge merely for the sake of knowledge.—The man must be disciplined and furnished according to the duties that lie before him.

An education should be such as to give energy and enterprise to the mind, and activity to the whole man. This depends, in part, upon the physical constitution. Hence the necessity of preserving a sound state of bodily health. To secure this, temperance and proper exercise

are requisite.—But what exercise is best, as a part of a student's education, is still unsettled. Without stopping to discuss that point at large here, in my opinion, the best kind of gymnastics are the exercises of the field and of the shop, in some kind of useful labor. The moral as well as physical effect of such exercises is every way superior to that of others which have been introduced, to say nothing of the addition they make to the wealth of the community;—and if such exercises are objected to, because they are deemed by many as derogatory to their character, they ought so much the more to be insisted on. It was never designed that fashion and inclination should give rules for education, but education ought to direct fashion, and regulate the inclination. But whatever may be the mode of doing it, the strictest attention ought to be paid to the health of the student. This alone however will not be sufficient; the mind also should be cultivated in direct reference to the object of making the pupil a man of enterprise and activity. Every thing that is calculated to call forth such a spirit should be cherished, and every thing which discourages it should be discountenanced. The student cannot be too much impressed with the idea that to be a mere man of letters is not the way to be the most useful man. We want men who will take the field, and whose souls are fired with a zeal for active duties in the service of the world.

Closely allied to this spirit of enterprise, and eminently productive of it, are the principle and habit of self dependence which should imbue the minds of youth at an early age. Nothing is more important in the formation of an enterprising character than to let the youth early learn his own powers; and in order to this he must be put upon his own resources, and must under-

stand if he is ever any thing he must make himself, and that he has within himself all the means for his own advancement. It is not desirable therefore that institutions should be so richly endowed as to furnish the means of education free of expense to those who are of an age to help themselves; nor is it desirable that any man or any society of men should furnish an entirely gratuitous education to the youth of this Province. All the necessary advantages for educating himself ought to be put within the reach of the young man, and if with these advantages, he cannot do much towards it, he is not worthy of an education. If it be said that self support, in part or in whole, is a tax upon time and a great draw back upon the student's acquirements; I answer that in the general, facts shew that such students are in advance of others in knowledge as well as in enterprise, and if they were not, still it is better that they should know less and do more, than that they should know more and do less.

The course above recommended will aid also in forming another trait of character and habit of life which is very important in this miscellaneous and changing world: I mean a facility in passing from one employment to another, and a ready adaptation of feeling to the various duties and changing circumstances of life. The intellectual and corporeal habits of most men are too inflexible, and the transition from one train of thought and from one class of exercises to another, altogether too difficult. They can move in straight lines, and in their old courses, to some purpose, but change their direction and employments, and they become almost useless to the community and to themselves. The amount of public and private loss sustained in this way is very great, and also very unnecessary. In most

of these cases the mind might have been so trained that like a ship in good trim it would answer to its helm, and adjust itself to its circumstances however variable the winds and the currents in the stormy sea of life.

But of all the effects to be produced upon the mind by a proper course of training, nothing is more important than the spirit of benevolence, of an enlightened and universal philanthropy. Without the aid of education, even religion itself seems hardly sufficient to make a thorough and an enlightened philanthropist. Hence if all the world would now be brought to possess a truly devotional character, they still might not have those enlightened principles of benevolence which are necessary for the general happiness of the world. The truth is, from the first dawning of reason to its maturity, mankind are trained each to look on his own things, and not on the things of another. The lessons of the nursery, the general course of domestic training, the policy of common schools, and the rewards and honors of the colleges, all tender to beget and foster a criminal selfishness. The education which leads to such a state of society is radically defective. Is there no way by which this selfish bias of the heart can be lessened, if not prevented? Far be it from me to teach that we are to be indifferent to our own interest. This is a kind of benevolence which may look well in theory, but it exists no where else, either in heaven or on earth; either in the bosom of Deity, or in the breast of his holiest creatures. Benevolence, therefore, should be incorporated into every system of education, not as a separate and an independent science, but as the seasoning of all and the final cause of all attainments.

In noticing the tone and character which are to be imparted to the mind by the hand of Edu-

cation, I have purposely omitted all those principles which are the most commonly insisted on in training the young student, and have touched on those only which are less frequently urged, and which seem, nevertheless, of vital importance to the accomplishment of the proposed object—educating men for the good of the world.

My views on the importance of the study of the ancient classicks are briefly these:—Ancient literature ought always to find an honourable place in our colleges and universities. If a knowledge of the ancient languages were of no other importance than to preserve the purity of the Holy Scriptures, and secure a correct translation of them into other languages, this would of itself keep these languages in credit, and make a critical study of them necessary.—But such is the character of modern literature and of the science, that a few only need devote themselves to ancient literature in comparison with the many who can be better employed in other studies. Too much stress is now laid upon a knowledge of the ancient classics. It is still deemed heterodoxy to call any man learned who is not skilled in the Greek and Latin Languages. The tone and character of our present system of education were formed at the revival of letters after the dark ages. But though the causes which led to the present system have passed away, yet by an unprofitable adherence to the traditions of the fathers we *must* have it still, that what was once necessary to constitute a scholar is still indispensable for the same character. But the state of literature and the character of the sciences, are greatly changed. At the revival of letters in the fifteenth century almost all the learning in the world was locked up in two languages, then out of popular use.

Hence to be a scholar it was necessary to be acquainted with Latin and Greek, and with the Roman and Grecian Literature. And indeed at that period the world had so far deteriorated from what it once was, that the only ready way to restore it to its former character was to reclaim the literature that had been buried for ages in the archives of antiquity,—to consult the manuscripts and symbols of ancient learning, and bring forth to light the obscured and forgotten truths of ancient research and labor. It was this which made the change of that day from darkness to light so sudden and glorious.—“We behold,” said a learned author, speaking of those times “a flood of noon day bursting all at once over every quarter of the horizon, and dissipating the darkness of a thousand years.” The fact was, the world had not to pass through another pupilage without text books or teachers.—It had not to serve another apprenticeship without patterns or masters. In the relics of former times there were rules and patterns and instructions in abundance. As soon therefore as a spirit of inquiry and a thirst for knowledge were excited, a great proportion of the light of antiquity burst at once upon the world.—This was the new sun that shone almost in meridian splendor at its first appearance. It had never been put out, but only obscured by the murky clouds of barbarism from the Scandinavian forests, and eclipsed by the smoke of superstition that went up from the pit of the *beast* and the *false prophet*. When this obscuration passed away, the sun of ancient science shone in its full orb'd glory. The attainments of antiquity were soon mastered.—The art of Printing, which was invented about this time, gave a ready circulation to this knowledge in all the countries where it was sought.

Literature and science were no longer foreign plants, but had become indigenous in all places where they were cultivated. Neither were the treasures of science long locked up in an ancient and dead language, but were spread out in the vernacular tongue of every enlightened land. Large additions also were constantly made to the original stock; and vast treasures of wisdom and knowledge have been brought to light, which the eye of antiquity never saw, which the ear of the ancients never heard, and of which indeed they had never formed any conception.—Hence the fact now is, and it is a fact that cannot be denied, that there is very little left in the fields of antiquity to be explored. All that is important in ancient science, except what is peculiar to the languages themselves, have not only been clothed in a modern dress, but have been incorporated with, and made constituent parts of modern text-books. Modern literature, therefore, should be counted the great field of literary enterprise and study. If it be necessary that the antiquarian should still make his pilgrimage to the East, and dig after learned hieroglyphics in the ruins of the Acropolis, and in the subterranean depositories of Herculaneum and Pompeii; or if it be necessary, as undoubtedly it is, that some should devote themselves to a critical investigation of the ancient languages,—so let it be; but from such a tedious pilgrimage, and such an endless study the great body of students should be excused, that they may devote themselves more immediately and more effectually to the great and pressing wants of the world. It may, indeed, be proper, that most students who have an opportunity of commencing an education early, and of pursuing it without embarrassment, should obtain some general knowledge of the Greek and Latin lan-

guages ; especially as there is an age in the developement of the youthful mind, in which language, perhaps, can be pursued to greater advantage than any other study ;—and if at that age a good foundation can be laid for a knowledge of etymology, of philology in general, and for a more ready attainment of the modern languages, this would be advantageous to the pupil.

The proper organization of a board of instruction is a matter of great moment, and of difficult attainment. All agree that they should be united among themselves ; that they should be men of learning, apt to teach, unimpeachable in their life, gentlemanly and winning in their manners, industrious in their habits, energetic and enterprising in their character, interested in their work, and faithful in the performance of their duties. But how to obtain such, how to keep them such after they are put in place, and how to get rid of them readily if they prove not to be such, are questions that have never been satisfactorily settled. After the greatest precaution, improper persons may be introduced into the board of instruction, who may change the whole system. But it is probable that more failures result from a defective organization in the tenure and emoluments of office, than from the appointment of incompetent officers.

In all literary institutions, should not the faculties for the time being be authorised by law to have a voice in filling vacancies in their board, or in removing an uncomfortable associate, which however is not generally the case in the colleges of the United States, where the want of such a law, and the consequent evils, are daily loudly complained of.

There is no copartnership whatever that so imperiously requires union and confidence among the partners, as an association for the

government and instruction of youth. And yet there are few associations even for the ordinary purposes of life, in which there is not greater precaution used to secure that union and mutual confidence, than in all literary seminaries that are but one advance above common schools. Again, when a person is elected to a seat in a college faculty, it is generally considered to be, at his own option, an appointment for life; except in those strong cases of immorality, or dereliction from official duty which will authorise formal charges and an impeachment. At any rate, under existing usages, any attempt to get rid of a president or professor is generally attended, not only with unpleasant consequences, but with serious injury to the institution. The effect therefore is as might be expected; incompetent and inefficient men often hold their offices for years, and not unfrequently for a long life, in the United States; in this way the funds of the institution are wasted, the benevolence of its patrons is abused, the department languishes, the students not only lose their time & money, but what is incomparably worse, there is a gap in their education which is never repaired. Add to these, the reputation of the institution itself sinks, the general literature of the country is depressed, and the world suffers an incalculable loss.

Another evil is, the salary and other rewards for the service of college officers do not depend at all, or in any adequate extent, upon the extent of the services rendered. The salary is fixed and limited. Whether the officer is energetic and enterprising, or otherwise, whether he gives good satisfaction to his pupils, and draws many to his instructions or not, whether he does all he can to elevate and sustain the character of the institution, or leaves the whole weight and res-

possibility of its reputation upon others ; in short, whether the institution flourishes or declines, *his* income is the same and his pay is sure.

If an officer should exert himself beyond his associates, or has health and mental energies which enable him to tower above the rest, he has not only no adequate compensation for his services, but he often has the mortification of seeing others in comparative idleness living upon the credit of his labors ; under such circumstances it can scarcely be expected that any great enthusiasm would be excited to keep up the credit of a college, or advance the interests of education in the inferior seminaries of learning. If men are actuated by the love of science or are impelled by pure benevolence, neither nor both of these influences can induce them to make extra exertions for the world when the merits of those exertions are consumed by their incompetent or unenterprising associates.

It is probably owing to some or all of these causes, both in England and America, that there is less enterprise in the colleges than *out* of them. While the Universities of France, of Germany, and Scotland, have been contributing largely to the literary and scientific wealth of the day, what has been done for a half century in the Universities of England or America ?

They have in some cases abridged, compiled, and translated, but what have they added to the original stock ?—Their citizens have enterprise, but, with a few honorable exceptions, they shew it every where else more than in their colleges and Universities. This is not the result of accident, there must be causes ; and these causes should be removed. If what we have just been noticing be the causes, the remedy is plain. Human minds need excitements to action, and daily this is evident, not only from experience,

but also from the course pursued by the all-wise Governor of the Universe, in the economy of nature, of Providence, and of grace.—He has made it for the interest of man to obey his laws, and to perform painful and laborious duties.—Now the perfection of philosophy is to carry out into all the departments of human life, the economy of God.—In all human enterprises therefore, we should shew our wisdom by doing as God does,—make it for the interest of those employed to be vigorous and faithful,—let their gifts make way for them, so that they shall receive a remuneration to themselves, and produce advantageous influences upon the community, commensurate with their talents and exertions. To be more specific in reference to the case before us.—Let the common schools be conducted by those who require and employ them—Let our higher seminaries be equally free—Let our faculties have a voice in the choice of men to fill vacancies in their board—Let suitable provision be made to remove inefficient men from office;—Stated and thorough examinations of the classes should be had under the direction of an impartial examining committee; and the proficiency of the students should be noted in direct reference to the competency of their instructors, as well as to determine the standing of students.—A college corporation ought to have a committee to examine into the standing of their officers of instruction, as regularly as one to audit the account of their Treasurer,—And to do this it is not necessary to examine these officers, their official character will be written on the mind of their pupils, and may be known and read of all men. It has been well said, that he “who cannot put his mark upon a student is not fit to have one.” Examine this mark, and by its dimensions and character you will

judge of the hand that made it.—Let it therefore be well understood as a condition of office that when a teacher's pupils are deficient he must give place to another.

That each instructor may have the credit and avails of his own labour, let his permanent salary be fixed at a bare competency for his own support, and let all beyond depend upon the general prosperity of the institution, and especially upon the extent and success of his own labors.

These general principles, if judiciously applied in the first organization of all our Provincial literary institutions, would be a great improvement.

Was it not that my report is swelling in size much beyond what I intended it should have been, I should have made some remarks upon the course of study to be pursued in the various classes of common schools, from the infant schools to the first class of those schools as well as to our high schools, *District schools*, (if continued) Grammar schools, Colleges, and University, comprehending the character and order of the studies, the text books and modes of instruction. But this would lead me into detail that would not be interesting, and I fear prevent the reading of what I deem important, and especially as I have already remarked upon the most important of those points, in my view of the character of the knowledge to be imparted to youth.

The *government, classification, and graduation* of students.

The government of a well regulated literary seminary is not a monarchy, an aristocracy, or a republic, but it is *patriarchal*. The nearer it approaches to this character, the more perfect it is.

Like a household, a literary institution should have but one head, and that head should have ability to govern, or he is unfit for his office. In this government, it is true, he ought to be assisted by the subordinate officers, but the government itself should be a unit, and receive its direction and influence from a common head.

The government of a seminary of learning, like a household, admits of no interference from abroad. A code of statute laws from a board of trustees, for the officers to execute among the students, will never be respected. Such a course, had not custom sanctioned it, would be deemed an insult to the immediate government and an outrage upon its authority. The student should feel that he is offending against his father and friend, and against the peace and prosperity of the community in which he has a common interest. Like a family, the intercourse between a student and the President and Professors should be of an affectionate and familiar character. Faculty meetings before whom the young transgressor is arraigned with all the sternness of a public prosecution on the one hand, and with all the cunning duplicity of a studied defence on the other, should be avoided.

I cannot feel justified to close my remarks on the subject of Government without giving my decided testimony in favor of a moral and religious influence to aid in the government of youth. This is of paramount importance.—With such an influence government is easy; without it, good government is impossible.

On the subject of classification there has, of late, been much said, and much to the purpose; but there are still different opinions.—The question in dispute is simply this:—Ought scholars to be classed by the year as they now are in most colleges; or ought they to be class-

ed according to their advancement in their respective studies, without reference to time?—The arguments in favor of the latter method, in my opinion, abundantly preponderate. Indeed I know of no plausible argument in favor of the prevailing course except it be the lessening of the labor of instruction. And this method was originally adopted, doubtless, not for the good of the pupil, but for the ease of his instructor. But what reason is there why college teachers should not labor as much as others? In high schools and academies, as also in primary schools, Teachers labor six and seven hours in the day, but in colleges not half that time, even in term time, and yet the officers have vacation one quarter of the year! Is there any good reason for this? Let him that enters upon the care and education of youth make up his mind for responsibility and labor, and then he will be prepared to adopt a system of classification which, while it only doubles the duties of the teacher, will increase the advantages of the student tenfold.

Yes I believe in many instances it will add to the student's advantages tenfold. He will not be obliged to hasten over his studies without knowing them, in order to keep up with his class, neither will he be retarded in his progress to accommodate the dull or the feeble. If he loses any time by sickness or necessary absence, or if for want of quickness of apprehension in any particular branch he falls in the rear of his class, he will not, as is the case in most colleges either lose a year for the want of a few weeks or months, or what is more common, and still worse for the student, be dragged on to a disadvantage, and carried through *in name*, without *in fact*, knowing the science. In the proposed method of classification, the arbitrary and pernicious

ous distinctions of superior and inferior grades will also be done away; and this will have a favorable bearing in more respects than one;—It will open the way for the honorable introduction of a very promising portion of youths into the college classes, who wish the advantages of the college for a course more or less extended in the sciences and modern literature, to the exclusion of the classics, and who, though most of the American Colleges have of late opened their classes for their reception, have not entered them, undoubtedly because they would have to do it under circumstances of inferiority, which American youth cannot readily submit to, and this will always be the case, probably so long as the present mode of classification is kept up—But this point will be more fully elucidated in the next topic of discussion, which is—the Graduation of Students.

Academic degrees are signs, true or false, of certain literary and scientific attainments.—But according to general usage, the first of these degrees requires a four years course in college, and, nominally at least, a knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages, and ancient literature, and the course to this degree is subdivided into the yearly classification already alluded to. The second degree also depends upon time, without even an inquiry into the candidate's literary advancement; so that when the first degree is conferred, the second might be added at once, with the proviso that it should not take effect under three years; and all the purposes of the degree would be answered. These leading features of college and University Constitutions were adopted at Cambridge and Oxford in England at an early period in the revival of learning, and from them the patterns have been furnished for American Institutions.

It would be difficult, I think, to give a satisfactory reason at any period for this *annual classification*, and for making a given period of years an essential qualification for a literary degree ; but there certainly was a reason, as we have shewn for making the Greek and Latin an essential part of a college course, and the same reason would require that literary degrees should be conferred on such only as understood these languages. But those reasons have passed away, and the whole system is now evidently defective.—The evils are twofold ;—First, these degrees are after conferred on the undeserving ; and secondly, they are often withheld from those who deserve them.

It is important that the world should know what to depend upon when a man presents a diploma from a literary institution. But it is a notorious fact that as these are now distributed they afford no satisfactory evidence that those who hold them are learned men.—And is this treating the cause of literature with respect, or the world at large with common honesty ?—The patrons of learning have in this way lowered themselves and their institutions down to a reproachful level. They respect not their own literary standards and honors, and therefore the world at large will not respect them. These honors have been exposed in the market, and have been struck off, not indeed to the highest bidder but to almost any one who would reside within the college walls and pay the college bills for a given number of years. It is true if the student would get through without much study, he must be skilled in one art—that of deception and lying. One day he must be sick—another time he must mistake his lesson—then again he must over sleep himself by mistake, and the next time get a friend to write his exer-

cise for him ; and occasionally, especially when the author is treating upon a part of science easy to be understood, he must appear in recitation room and make a great display in the exhibition of what he knows.—If he does not understand these arts when he enters, he soon gets this part of his education, and readily qualifies himself for a degree in all the college arts of deception and falsehood. The fact is, the youth wants the honor of a degree, and is too lazy, or perhaps too dull to obtain the requisite qualifications in the given time ; or his father or guardian has determined that his son or ward shall have the honors of a graduate, in either case the object of the boy will be to get on and get thro' without being denied his deploma. And unfortunately this is not difficult. *Time* having been fixed upon as one of the principal criteria of his advancement, this at length has come to be almost the only requisite, including perhaps what a youth would naturally acquire by being in a literary atmosphere, and mingling with books and students. If he is a little deficient the first year, it is a pity to put him back a whole year and therefore he is allowed to go on ; and so he drags himself on, falling in the rear a little more every year, to the last ; and now although he could not perhaps, on a fair examination, turn round and re-enter a freshman, still, as he has gone through his *years*, and paid his bills, the least that can be done is to give him his degree and let him go, hence scores of *uneducated graduates* go forth yearly from literary institutions, with their diplomas signed and sealed, and their names splendidly enrolled as admitted *ad primum gradum in artibus*, in due and ancient form.

By this I do not mean that none get a good education in colleges. The greater portion, perhaps, are well educated. I only mean that

many are graduated, and have the *testimonials* of education who have not the *character*.

On the other hand, the present principle of conferring degrees excludes from these testimonials all who have not, professedly at least, become acquainted with the ancient classics, whereas if these honors are of any value, they ought to be given to the proficient in modern literature and in the sciences, as well as to the classical scholar. I do not mean to say the same degrees should be given to both classes. If the present degrees are sanctioned and consecrated for particular attainments, I have no desire to see them changed, provided they are not prostituted to confer a deceptive honor on heads "that do not know and will not learn." But I insist that public and official testimonials ought to be given to the mere English scholar. In short let the diploma of a College tell the truth and nothing but the truth, respecting the literary and scientific attainments of the graduates, so far as this can be ascertained by a thorough and critical examination, and let it be denied to none who deserve it.

The leading principles here proposed, are such as appear to me to be the choice of those practical men who, from long experience and careful and critical observation have recommended, so far as I could comprehend their views; it is true some may be startled at what may seem to them hazardous innovations of old systems, but it should be understood that these principles, though unpractised among us, are not new; most of them have been adopted and successfully practised upon by some of the most flourishing institutions in Europe; and some of them have recently been incorporated into several collegiate institutions in the United States, &

are strenuously advocated by many of the most enlightened men in the world.

But was there ever a more auspicious period than the present for literary reform? If I rightly understand the signs of the times, we stand upon the threshold of a new dispensation in the science of education, and especially in the history of common schools, colleges, and universities in this province. The flattering prospects of our being permitted legally to dispose of the school lands of this province, so long dormant—the sale and appropriation of the Clergy Reserves for the purposes of education, and above all by our having control of the other natural resources of the province, we shall be enabled to provide respectably and permanently for the support of literary institutions in every part of the province; while by remodelling the charter of King's College so as to adapt the institution to the present state of the science of education and wishes and wants of the people of this province, and by all our own literary institutions being so constructed as to serve as nurseries from which the youth may be transplanted to an institution where they may grow to maturity and spread out with the increasing improvements of the age, while at the same time they collect into a luminous focus every additional ray that emanates from the sun of science to renovate the tree of knowledge.

With such charming prospects before us, with what alacrity and delight can we approach the subject of education to make liberal, permanent and efficient provision for the education of all the youth of Upper Canada to cause “the blind to see, the deaf to hear, and the dumb to speak” and above all to make certain and extensive provision for the support of schools for teachers and tutoresses, and while upon the subject of “normal schools” I cannot too earnestly recom-

mend the careful and attentive reading of the extracts made from the report of Victor M. Cousin upon that subject, and appended to this report. Nor can I for the life of me comprehend why similar schools for the education of female teachers may not prove equally advantageous to the cause of education and to the happiness and ornament of society. And next, to provide competent female teachers. One of the first objects that need to be attempted in regard to female education, is to secure some method of rendering female institutions permanent in their existence and efficient in perpetuating a regular and systematic course of education. This is secured for the other sex by institutions so endowed that the death or removal of an individual does not hazard their existence or character. They continue year after year, and sometimes for ages, maintaining the same system of laws, government, and course of study. But in regard to female institutions, every thing is ephemeral ; because in most cases every thing depends upon the character and enterprise of a single individual. A school may be at the height of prosperity one week, and the next week entirely extinct. Communities seem almost entirely dependent upon chance, both for the character and perpetuity of female schools. If good teachers stray into their bounds, they are fortunate ; if poor ones, they have no remedy. Thus the character, the conduct, and the continuance of those who are so extensively to mould the character of the future wives and mothers of this province are almost entirely removed from the control of those most deeply interested.

One method which may tend to remedy the evil is the investment of property in buildings, furniture, and apparatus devoted to this object under the care of a suitable corporate body. It thus

becomes the business of certain responsible men that the property thus invested shall secure the object for which it has been bestowed. But this method alone will not avail, for though the probabilities are greater that endowed institutions will be well sustained, it is often found that they do fail in securing a systematic and perpetuated plan of education. There needs to be added a well devised plan of Government and course of study, together with that division of labor existing in colleges which secures several able instructors to the same institution, and in such a way that the removal of any one teacher does not interrupt the regular system of the institution.

That this can be accomplished in regard to female institutions as well as those for the other sex, is no longer problematical, for it has already been done; and what has been done can be done again. One female institution, at least can be referred to in which a regular system of government and instruction has been carried on for a course of years, until an adequate number of teachers and pupils has been fitted to perpetuate the system, so that as one teacher after another was called away, others were prepared to take their places; and thus the whole number of teachers, from the principal to the lowest monitor, has been repeatedly changed, and yet the same system and course of study have been preserved, while there is as fair a prospect of future perpetuity as is afforded by most colleges.

Another object to be aimed at in regard to female education is, a remedy for the desultory, irregular, and very superficial course of education now so common in all parts of our Province, and I may add in the neighboring country.—When young men are sent to obtain a good education, there is some standard of judging of

their attainments, there are some data for determining what has been accomplished. But in regard to females, they are sent first to one school and then to another; they attend a short time to one set of studies and then to another; while every thing is desultory, unsystematic and superficial. Their course of study is varied to suit the notions of parents, or the whims of children, or the convenience of teachers; and if a young lady secures a regular & thorough course of education, it is owing either to the uncommonly good sense and efforts of parents, or to the rare occurrence of finding teachers sufficiently stationary and persevering to effect it.

The remedy for this evil (in addition to what is suggested in previous remarks) is to be sought in co-operating efforts among the leading female schools in the Province, to establish a uniform course of education adapted to the character and circumstances of females, to correspond with what is done in colleges for young gentlemen. The propriety of giving titles of honor to distinguish females who complete such a course may and will be questioned. It certainly is in very bad taste, and would provoke needless ridicule and painful notoriety, except to those who propose becoming teachers.—But if the leading female institutions in this province commencing with those in this city, were to combine to establish a regular course of study which should be appropriate and complete, it would prove an honor and advantage to young ladies to have it known that their education was thus secured; and it would also prove an advantage to the schools, as they would thus gain the reputation of sending out uniformly well educated pupils—other schools would gradually adopt the same plan; and thus the evils alluded to, will, to a great extent, be remedied. These

measures would have the same effect on female education as medical and theological schools have upon those professions—they tend to elevate and purify, although they cannot succeed in banishing, all stupidity and empiricism.

Another object to be aimed at in regard to female education is, to introduce into schools such a course of intellectual and moral discipline and such attention to mental and personal habits as shall have a decided influence in fitting a woman for her *peculiar* duties. What is the most important and peculiar duty of the female sex? It is the physical, intellectual, and moral education of children.—It is the care of the health and the formation of the character of the future citizen.

Woman, whatever are her relations in life, is necessarily the guardian of the nursery, the companion of childhood, and the constant model of imitation. It is her hand that first stamps impressions on the immortal spirit that must remain for ever,—and what demands such discretion—such energy—such patience—such tenderness, love and wisdom—such perspicuity to discern—such versality to modify—such efficiency to execute—such firmness to persevere, as the government and education of all the various that characters and tempers they meet in the nursery and schoolroom. Woman also is the presiding genius who must regulate all those thousand minutiae of domestic business that demand habits of industry, order, neatness, punctuality, and constant care. And it is for such varied duties that woman is to be trained. For this her warm sympathies, her lively imagination, her ready invention, her quick perceptions, all need to be cherished and improved ; while at the same time those more foreign habits of patient attention, calm judgment, steady efficiency, and

habitual self-control, must be induced and sustained.

Is a weak, undisciplined, unregulated mind fitted to encounter the responsibility, weariness, and watching of the nursery—to bear the incessant care and perplexity of governing young children—to accommodate with kindness and patience to the peculiarities and frailties of a husband—to control the indolence, waywardness and neglect of servants, and to regulate all the variety of domestic cares? The superficial accomplishments of former periods were of little avail to fit a woman for such arduous duties, and for this reason it is that as society has advanced in all other improvements the course of female education has been gradually changing, & some portion of that mental discipline once exclusively reserved for the other sex, is beginning to exert its invigorating influence on the female character both in England and America. At the same time the taste of the age is altered; and instead of the fainting, weeping, vapid, pretty plaything, once the model of female loveliness, those qualities of the head and heart that best qualify a woman for her duties, are demanded and admired.

None will deny the importance of having females properly fitted for their peculiar duties; and yet few are aware how much influence a teacher may exert in accomplishing this object. School is generally considered as a place where children are sent, not to form their habits, opinions and character, but simply to learn from books, and yet whatever may be the opinion of teachers and parents, children do to a very great extent form their character under influences bearing upon them at school. They are proverbially creatures of imitation and accessible to powerful influences. Six hours every day

are spent with teachers whom they usually love and respect, and whose sentiments and opinions in one way or other they constantly discover. They are at the same time associated with companions of all varieties of temper, character and habit. Is it possible that this can exist without involving constant and powerful influences either good or bad? The simple fact that a teacher succeeds in making a child habitually accurate and thorough in all the lessons of school, may induce mental habits that will have a controlling influence through life. If the government of schools be so administered as to induce habits of cheerfulness and implicit obedience, if punctuality, neatness, and order in all school employments are preserved for a course of years it must have some influence in forming useful habits. On the contrary, if a child is tolerated in disobedience and neglect, if school duties are performed in a careless, irregular and deficient manner, pernicious habits may be formed that will operate disastrously through life. It is true that mismanagement and indulgence at home may counteract all the good influences of school, and the faithful charge of parental duty may counteract, to some extent, the bad influences of school; but this does not lessen the force of these considerations.

Nor is the course of study and mental discipline of inferior consequence: the mere committing to memory of the facts contained in books, is but a small portion of education. Certain portions of time should be devoted to fitting a woman for her practical duties, such, for example, as needle work. Other pursuits are designed for the cultivation of certain mental faculties, such as *attention*, *perseverance* and *accuracy*. This for example, is the influence of the study of mathematics, while the conversation and efforts of

a teacher, directed to this end, may induce habits of investigation and correct reasoning, not to be secured by any other method. Other pursuits are designed to cultivate the taste and imagination, such as rhetoric, poetry, and other branches of polite literature. Some studies are fitted to form correct moral principles and strengthen religious obligation, such as mental and moral philosophy, the study of the evidences of Christianity, the study of the Bible and of collateral subjects. Other studies are designed to store the mind with useful knowledge, such for example as geography, history, and the natural sciences. The proper selection and due proportion of these various pursuits will have a decided influence in forming the mental habits and general character of the pupils.

Another important object in regard to female education is the provision of suitable facilities for instruction, such as are deemed indispensable for the other sex, particularly apparatus and libraries.

The branches now included in a course of education for females of the higher circles have increased in the United States till nearly as much is attempted as, were it properly taught, is demanded of young men at college, little has been done to secure a corresponding change in regard to the necessary facilities to aid in female instruction.

To teach young men properly in chemistry, natural philosophy, and other branches of science, it is deemed necessary to furnish a teacher for each separate branch who must be prepared by a long previous course of study, who shall devote his exclusive attention to it, and who shall be furnished with apparatus at the expense of thousands of pounds, and to aid both teach-

ers and pupils extensive libraries must be provided at the public expense.

But when the same branches are to be taught to females, one teacher is considered enough to teach a dozen such sciences, and, that, too without any apparatus, without any qualifying process, and without any library.

If females are to have the same branches included in their education as the other sex, ought there not to be a corresponding change to provide the means for having them properly taught ; or are the female sex to be complimented with the intimation that a single teacher, without preparatory education, without apparatus, and without libraries, can teach young ladies what it requires half a dozen teachers, fitted by a long course of study, and furnished with every facility of books & apparatus to teach young gentlemen. It is true such extensive public endowments are not needed for females as for the other sex, because their progress in many of the sciences never needs to be so extensive ; but if these branches are to constitute a part of female education, is not *something* of this kind demanded from public munificence, that all be not left to the private purse of the teacher, who must furnish it from slender earnings, or remain unsupplied ?

But the most important deficiency, and one which is equally felt by both sexes, is the want of a system of moral and religious education at school which shall have a *decided influence* in forming the character, and regulating the principles and conduct of future life.

When it is asserted that it is of more consequence that woman be educated to be virtuous, useful, and pious, than that they become learned and accomplished, every one assents to the truth of the position. When it is said that it is

the most important and most difficult duty of parents and teachers to form the moral character, the principles, and habits of children, no one will dissent. All allow it to be a labor demanding great watchfulness, great wisdom, and constant perseverance and care. For what comfort would parents find in the assurance that their children are intelligent, learned, and accomplished, if all is to be perverted by indolence, vice, and irreligion? and what is the benefit to society, in increasing the power of intellect and learning, if they only add to the evils of contaminating example and ruinous vice?—The necessity of *virtuous* intelligence in the mass of the community is peculiarly felt in a form of government like ours—a beautiful appendage to the most perfect mixed monarchy, where the people are not held in restraint by physical force, as in despotic governments, but where, if they do not voluntarily submit to the restraints of virtue and religion, they must inevitably run loose to wild misrule, anarchy, and crime. For a nation to be virtuous and religious, the females of that nation must be deeply imbued with these principles; for just as the wives and mothers sink or rise in the scale of virtue, intelligence, and piety the husbands and the sons will rise or fall. These positions scarce any intelligent person will deny, so that it may be set down as one of the current truisms of society that the formation of the moral and religious principles and habits is the most important part of education, even in reference to this life alone. To this is added the profession of all who reverence christianity, that the interests of an immortal state of being are equally suspended on the same results.

But while this is the *verbal* opinion of society, what is the *practical* opinion, as exhibited in systems of education, particularly in schools.

We find in all communities a body of persons set apart for the express purpose of communicating knowledge and cultivating the intellect of childhood and youth ; at the same time we find both parents and teachers uniting in the feeling that this is all that is required, and that it is not expected that they should attempt anything more. As the care of the intellect is the business given to teachers, we find that *some* success always attends these efforts. However dull the child, or incompetent the teacher, at the end of each year it will be found that every child has learned something, and that the memory at least if no other faculty, is to some extent cultivated. Parents and school visitors find that the money employed is not spent entirely in vain, but that it does to some extent secure the object for which it was expended. But if parents or school committees should visit schools with such inquiries as these ;—“ How many pupils have improved in the government of their temper the past year ? ”—“ How many are more docile and obedient ? ”—“ How many are more strict in regard to veracity, honor, and honesty ? ”—“ How many have improved in a spirit of magnanimity, self-command, and forgiveness of injuries ? ”—“ How many have learned to govern their tongues by the law of charity, so as not to speak evil of others or to propagate scandal ? ”—“ How many are more regardful of the duties owed to parents and mankind, and obliging to companions ? ”—“ How many are more mindful of their highest obligations to God ? ”—and “ How many, under the influence of fear and love to him, are practising more and more the self-denying duties of benevolence to all ? ”

Would not such questions, in most of our schools, awaken surprise, and be deemed irrelevant and almost impertinent, even if address-

ed to those whose express business it is to educate children.

Why is there this strange discrepancy between the avowed opinions and the practice of society?

Not because the moral and religious education of children is a matter with which teachers cannot profitably employ themselves. None will deny that teachers possessing the requisite character and experience, employed with the express understanding that they are held responsible for the moral as well as the intellectual education of their pupils, and allowed sufficient time and opportunity for such duties, could exert a constant and powerful influence over young and plastic minds, placed for six hours each day under their entire control, and what peculiar advantages teachers enjoy, who, unbiassed by the partialities of parental fondness, can observe their charge when thrown into collision with all the various characters that meet in the school-room and play-ground, where often are developed peculiarities of character and temper that escape parental notice and care.

Nor does this strange inconsistency exist because teachers cannot give instruction in all the relative moral and religious duties, nor because they cannot become intimately acquainted with the peculiar temperament, habits, and deficiencies of every child, and point out its dangers and set before it the appropriate motives to excite to virtuous effort.

Nor is it because experience shews that it does no good to convince children of their faults, and to invite them to improvement. Nor is it because teachers cannot with propriety and success bring to bear upon the minds of children, the powerful motives of religious obligation; teaching them the claims of the Bible, the evi-

dences of its authority, the proper mode of gaining a correct and independent knowledge of its contents while they daily appeal to it as the standard of moral rectitude, and employ its solemn sanctions to sustain its precepts.

Nor is it because parents all of them are so pre-eminently well qualified to understand and regulate the varieties of youthful character; a labor demanding such experience, wisdom, energy, perseverance, and self-denial; nor because they have such entire leisure to discharge these duties; nor because they are so entirely free from all liabilities to indolence, excessive indulgence, and blind insensibility to the faults of their children, nor because they always so wisely and so faithfully fulfil all these duties, that they have no need of such co-operating influences, from those whose business it is to aid in the education of children.

Nor, lastly, is it because there is any such essential difference in the religious opinions of the great Christian community that religious and moral instruction cannot be introduced into public schools without encroaching on the peculiarities of those who support them.

Those great principles of religious truth and moral duty in which all agree, are the only ones which are needed in the moral education of children at school.

All agree that the Bible is the true standard of right and wrong, and the only rule of faith and practice. All agree that the evidences of its divine authority should be understood, and that its contents should be studied.

All agree that the Bible teaches that mankind are in danger of eternal ruin; that all have become sinful, that a way of pardon and salvation has been secured through the atoning sacrifice of the Redeemer; that whenever love to

God, and the desire to do his will, is the regulating principle of the mind, men are prepared for Heaven; and that without this character no happiness is to be hoped for in a future state; that no man will ever attain this character without supernatural aid from the Spirit of God; and that such influences are to be sought by prayer and the use of the appropriate means of religious influence; that as the Bible is the standard of rectitude in all moral and relative duties, children are to be educated to understand its precepts and urged by all the motives it presents to obey them.

There is not one of the largest Christian denominations that would refuse assent to any one of these positions, and these principles are all that need to be employed in forming the moral and religious character of children at school. The point in which these sects differ relate either to forms of church government, or to the rights of the church, or to the philosophy of religion, and these peculiarities never need be introduced into school, but can be taught by parents and religious teachers elsewhere.

But if any religious sect attach such importance to their own peculiarities as to fear the influence of religious instruction exerted by those who differ from them on these points, they could institute schools taught by persons of their own sect; and though they might involve some dangers and some evils, yet there would be the counterbalancing good which is often found to be the result of sectarianism, more would be accomplished in a good cause than would have been had no such jealousy existed.

One thing is certain, if religious influences are banished from our provincial system of education, every denomination will be injured in its most vital interests. For one who would be pro-

selyted by a sectarian teacher, ten would be ruined by the vice and irreligion consequent on the subject of moral and religious influences.

Our schools must have these influences ; but whether it shall be by the united or by the separate action of religious sects is a matter of secondary consequence.

The reasons for the neglect of moral and religious education at schools are, in the first place, the fact that intellectual superiority has too high a relative estimation in society. Men do award to genius and knowledge an estimation not rendered to amiable character, true virtue, and sincere piety.

Another reason is that mankind are not aware how much might be effected by teachers, in the most important part of education, were they properly trained for these duties and allowed sufficient time and opportunity for the discharge of them.

Another reason is, that, to a very wide extent, teachers are not qualified for such duties,—do not know how to undertake them, and do not understand or feel their obligation on this subject.

And the last reason is, that such are the present systems of education, so many pupils are given to the care of one person, and so great a variety of branches are to be taught by a single individual, that in most cases it is utterly impossible for teachers to attempt properly to discharge their most important duty, without so neglecting what parents consider the *only* business of a teacher as to occasion dissatisfaction and the removal either of teacher or pupils.

Until public sentiment is so changed that teachers shall be educated for their profession, and parents are willing to pay the price for such a division of labor as will give time and opportu-

nity for the discharge of their most sacred duties, it is desirable that conscientious teachers should realize how much is left undone in moral education that might be accomplished.

In regard to education the world is now making experiments such as were never before made. Man is demanding disenthralment alike from physical force and intellectual slavery; and by a slow and secret process one nation after another is advancing in a sure though silent progress. Man is bursting the chains of slavery, and the bonds of intellectual subserviency; and is learning to think, and reason, and act for himself, and the great crisis is hastening on when it shall be decided whether disenthralled intellect and liberty shall voluntarily submit to the laws of virtue and of Heaven, or run wild to insubordination, anarchy, and crime. The great questions pending before the world are simply these:—"Are liberty and intelligence, without the restraints of a moral and religious education, a blessing or a curse?"—"Without moral and religious restraints, is it best for man to receive the gift of liberty and intelligence, or to remain coerced by physical force and the restraints of opinions and customs not his own?"

The master-spirits of the age are watching the developments as they rise, and make their records for the instruction of mankind.

And what results are already gained?—In England the experiment has been made by Lord Brougham, and at great expense, knowledge has gone forth with increasing liberty, and all who have witnessed the results are coming to the conviction, that increase of knowledge, without moral and religious influence, is only increase of vice and discontent? And what are the results of the experiment in France?—The statistics of education shew that the best edu-

cated departments are the most vicious, and the most ignorant are the freest from vice,—and in that country, where the national representatives once declared that christianity should be banished, and the Bible burnt, and the sabbath annihilated, we now find its most distinguished statesmen and citizens uniting in the public declaration, that moral and religious education must be the foundation of national instruction. Victor Cousin, one of the most distinguished philosophers of the age, and appointed by the King of France to examine the various systems of education in Europe has reported as the result of his investigations, that education is a blessing just in proportion as it is founded on moral and religious principles.

Look, again, at Prussia ! with its liberal and patriotic monarch, with a system of education unequalled in the records of time, requiring by law that all the children in the nation be sent to school from the first day they are seven years of age till the last day they are fourteen, with a regular course of literary and scientific instruction, instituted for every school, and every teacher required to spend three years in preparing for such duties, while on an average one teacher is furnished for every ten pupils through the province. The effects of merely intellectual culture soon convinced the monarch and his counsellors that moral and religious instruction must be the basis of all their efforts ; and now the Bible is placed in every school, and every teacher is required to spend from one to two hours each day in giving and enforcing instruction in all the duties of man toward his creator, towards constituted authorities, and towards his fellow men.

The object aimed at is one immense and difficult enough to demand the highest exercise

of every energy and every mode of influence. If Prussia, with her dense population, finds one teacher for every ten children needful, the spareness of population in our wide territories surely demands an equal supply. At this rate *thirty thousand* teachers are this moment wanted to supply the destitute; and to these must be added every year *four thousand* simply to meet the increase of population. But if we allow thirty pupils as the average number for every teacher then we need *ten thousand* teachers for present wants and an annual addition of *one thousand* for increase of population. And yet what has been done—what is now doing—to meet this enormous demand? While Prussia, for years, has been pouring out her well educated teachers from her forty-five seminaries at the rate of one for every ten pupils; while France is organizing her normal schools in all her departments for the education of her teachers, and while every portion of the United States is alive to the subject of education—what is done in Upper Canada? What patriot—what philanthropist—what christian, does not see that all that is sacred and dear, in home and country, & liberty, and religion, call upon him to awaken every energy and put forth every effort.

Does the heart fail and the courage sink at the magnitude of the work, and the apparent destitution of means? We have the means, we have the power. There is wealth enough. Nothing is wanting but a knowledge of our wants, our duty and our means, and a willing mind in exerting our energies. Our difficulties have been briefly noticed. It is the object of this Report to point out one important measure in the system of means that must be employed.

When we consider the claims of the learned professions, the excitement and profits of com-

merce, manufactures, agriculture, and the arts; when we consider the aversion of most men to the sedentary, confining, and toilsome duties of teaching and governing young children; when we consider the scanty pittance that is allowed to the majority of teachers; and that few men will enter a business that will not support a family, when there are multitudes of other employments that will afford competence and lead to wealth; it is chimerical to hope that the supply of such immense deficiencies in our national education is to come chiefly from that sex.—It is women, fitted by disposition and habits, and circumstances, for such duties, who, to a very wide extent, must aid in educating the childhood and youth of this province, and therefore it is that females must be trained and educated for this employment.—And most happily it is true that the education necessary to fit a woman to be a teacher is exactly the one that best fits her for that domestic relation she is primarily designed to fill.

But how is this vast undertaking to be accomplished? How can such a multitude of female teachers as are needed be secured and fitted for such duties? The following will shew how it *can* be done, if those most interested and obligated shall only *will* to have it done.

Men of patriotism and benevolence can commence by endowing two or three seminaries for female teachers, in the most important stations in the province, while to each of these seminaries shall be attached a model school supported by the children of the place where it is located. In these seminaries can be collected those who have the highest estimate of the value of moral and religious influence, and the most talents and experience for both intellectual and moral education.

When these teachers shall have succeeded in training classes of teachers on the best system their united wisdom can devise, there will be instructors prepared for other seminaries for teachers, to be organized and conducted on the same plan; and thus a regular and systematic course of education can be disseminated through the province.

Meantime proper efforts being made by means of the press, the pupil, and influential men employed as agents for this object, the interest of the whole province can be aroused, and every benevolent and every pious female in the province, who has the time and qualifications necessary, can be enlisted to consecrate at least a certain number of years to this object. There is not a village in this province that cannot furnish its one, two, three, and in some cases more laborers for the field.

And as a system of right, moral and religious education gains its appropriate influence, as women are more and more educated to understand and value the importance of their influence in society and their peculiar duties, more young females will pursue their education with the expectation that, unless paramount private duties forbid, they are to employ their time and talents in the duties of a teacher, until they assume the responsibilities of a domestic life. Females will cease to feel that they are educated just to enjoy themselves in future life and realize the obligations imposed by heaven, to live to do good, and, when females are educated as they ought to be, every woman at the close of her school education will be well qualified to act as a teacher.

The establishment of institutions for the education of female teachers would also most successfully remedy all the difficulties in regard to

female education which have been exhibited.—When female teachers are well trained for their profession, a great portion of the higher female schools will be entrusted to their care, and they will be prepared to co-operate in propagating a uniform and thorough system of female education, both intellectual and moral. When such teachers are scattered through the land, they will aid in enlightening the public mind in regard to permanently endowed institutions for females. By this means also essential aid will be rendered in advancing improvements in regard to physical education, in introducing useful exercises, in promoting a national taste for music, and in various other modern improvements.

It is perhaps here worthy of remark that from the reports of the temperance societies, both in Europe and America, seven tenths of all the common drunkards in the world are men who cannot read and write so well as to render these occupations agreeable and amusing to them. The mind of man, ever on the stretch for some active employment or amusement, when uneducated and unable to associate with men of letters, and incapable of reading, and the interest excited by books, by degrees relaxes and becomes almost unconsciously led into intemperance and vice :—as a proof, the fact that not more than $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the individuals confined in Houses of Correction, Houses of Refuge, Bridewells, City and State Prisons, and Penitentiaries, have a common education. I shall be able to illustrate this fact in my report upon Penitentiaries, which I am preparing as fast as possible, with the little assistance I have. I will, however, here copy one extract from the report of the agent of the Sing Sing State Prison, of last year. The agent says that in the

Sing Sing state prison containing 842 prisoners, there, in August last, only fifty had received any thing like an education;—The following is his statement.

“There are at present 842 prisoners;—of these 170 can neither read nor write—34 have never been at school—85 can read, but cannot write—510 can read and write, but most of them very imperfectly—42 had a common education—8 went through college; of the whole number 485 had been habitual drunkards, about one third of whom committed their crimes when actually intoxicated.”

The Warden of the Eastern Penitentiary in Pennsylvania says, that in 1834, 219 prisoners in the whole had been received—of these 42 could not read nor write—59 could read but not write—118 could read and write, but 98 of them but very indifferently; leaving only twenty who had received any thing like a common education. If Legislators are justified in the enactment of laws for the punishment of crime, how much more ought they to be vigilant and active in adopting such measures as will be best calculated to suppress and prevent it; the door is now open, the means are now within their reach, the school funds of the province are about to be made available for purposes of education, and our future greatness depends much upon the first application that is made of these means;—then let the honorable the House of Assembly reflect maturely upon the propriety of establishing at once one seminary for teachers in the east—one in the centre, and one in the West part of this province—devoted principally to the education and qualification of teachers; and endow not less than one female seminary for the education of female teachers, and allow a portion of the school funds as soon as they are a-

vailable for the purposes of education, to be set apart expressly for the support, qualification, and education of male and female teachers; one school of this sort will soon be required in every district of this province, and would, I verily believe, contribute more to the advancement of science and literature than the expenditure of much larger sums in the support of common schools or higher institutions of learning, and while I do not recommend the sinecure pension compulsory system of Prussia for adoption in this province, as is seen by the bill accompanying this report, but rely upon the exertions of teachers to secure to themselves continuance in their employment, and by the prudent saving the avails of their earnings, when they become by age or infirmities disqualified from teaching a school they may have the comforts of life secured to them by their former economy and industry; and I am the more explicit upon this point, as I believe that frugality and economy in a money-making country like ours, are virtues that ought to be taught the youth of the land, by the examples of their preceptors as well as their precepts; besides moral instruction is but badly taught by the profligate and intemperate; and I am much inclined to believe that “as is the master so is the child”—then pay your teachers—provide for their qualification—and be careful in their examinations and the examinations of their schools.

And perhaps the recent rapidly increased prosperity of the United States, and of the northern, eastern, and middle States in particular, may be attributed more to the extensive and general diffusion of education through the medium of their common schools and other literary institutions, and the almost entire suppression of the use of distilled spirits among them than to

any other causes. The millions of dollars worth of distilled spirits consumed in 1830 over and above the quantity consumed in 1835, shews how much has been saved in that item from the fire that not only burned up itself, but consumed with it *time*, character, and constitution, and with other expenses amounted altogether to a sum equal to all the revenues collected in the United States during the same period; but in my report upon prisons and prison discipline which I am preparing I shall give such authority for these opinions, as will be hardly questionable.

In submitting the accompanying bill, I have adopted such parts of the system referred to as are the most popular with those countries where the subject has undergone the most recent and thorough investigation—and while I claim no merit for anything original in the system of education thus attempted to be introduced, or for anything new in the bill by which this improvement is designed to be accomplished, I cannot refrain from remarking that it combines simplicity with precision—clearness with perspicuity—and is adapted in style and language to the capacities of those persons who are most interested in it, and is so clearly explained that the most ordinary mind can, if required, carry any of its provisions into complete effect. It is designed to be a system of common school education, founded upon the wisdom and experience of the past as developed in the reports of the most literary men of the age both in Europe and America. Lord Brougham's elaborate report shews how cheaply and perfectly a large community may be educated, where the work is undertaken in right earnest, and where a proper system is pursued. Mr. Dick, who has brought the system of education in Scotland to far greater perfection than any who had preceded him, il-

illustrates the necessity of interesting parents and guardians in the education of their children, and modes to accomplish the object. Mr. Cousin, in his valuable report upon the Prussian system of education, proves that in absolute monarchies parents must be compelled to educate their children, or they neglect it; and it is contended that the state that has power to punish crimes, has, and of right ought to have, power to prevent it; by educating the children of the empire in science, morality, and virtue. In the United States various means have been adopted to educate the whole people so that mind shall rule, and in fact the energies of the civilized world seem directed to the same great and grand object, the moral and religious education of the whole people as the most effectual method of preventing crime and misery.

By this bill the inhabitants of every township may provide a portion of the funds necessary for the support of common schools by a *voluntary* tax upon their rateable property, and as an inducement to them to raise the funds required, one half of the public school money of each year is to be apportioned among such townships as raise a sum for the support of common schools not exceeding one penny in the pound. It also provides that each school district shall regulate its own affairs, build a school house, a house for the teacher with such comforts as they may think proper, establish mechanics' shops, or gardening for manual labor schools, by which the industrious may learn science, a trade, and make wages at the same time. It also provides for the education of teachers by establishing four normal schools there for the education of males and one for the education of females,—this has succeeded well in Prussia; why should it not succeed equally well in Canada? The nature &

operations of the mind are the same in all countries, and the relations which exist between knowledge and the intellectual and the moral faculties, remain unchanged under every system of education and every form of government, & the practice of obtaining literary and scholastic information, by observation made under the direction of Government, by special commissioners for that purpose, to visit, consult, examine, and report the result of those investigations are not new, but the precedent has been established by the authority of some of the most enlightened countries both in Europe and America. But those exertions to correct by observation and comparison the defects and discrepancies of various institutions and systems of education, whether made by order of the Government, or by private philanthropy and enterprise, have been isolated, local and partial, and although their reports contain many important and interesting *facts* upon the several subjects thus investigated, they rather serve to show the defects in other institutions than lay down any general system of education not equally objectionable, and I must again repeat, the reason why we legislate so badly for the people upon this subject is, there is no instruction in the past.

If a general literary convention, composed of the men best qualified for the important subject by their learning, ability, and independence of political, sectarian, and traditional prejudice, were to meet upon the subject of a general system of education founded upon *nature*, and adapted to the various capacities of the different sexes of all classes of community, and at all ages, such a system of education might be framed by such a convention after careful investigation and mature reflection, I am satisfied, as would be eminently useful to mankind, teaching

by observation and constant practical demonstration on the part of the pupils themselves facilitate the acquirement of knowledge by giving the pupil clear and distinct *ideas* upon all subjects attempted to be taught him, by presenting everything he is to learn to as many of his senses as he can approach the subject with thereby lessening the necessity of increasing the number of arbitrary names that must be learned before any familiar association is connected with them, which would serve the cause of literature, humanity, and philanthropy most materially.

I am quite satisfied that without regulations far more extensive than has yet been introduced, a control far more enlightened and constant than has yet been exercised, and fiscal aid far more ample than has yet been afforded, it is vain to expect that the character of our common schools can be truly and permanently improved.

In the United States, so far as I have witnessed and am capable of judging, their common school systems are as defective as our own. They have, according to their public documents, about eighty thousand common school teachers, but very few of whom have made any preparation for their duties; the most of them accidentally assume their office as a *temporary* employment.

Thus the lame and the lazy, because they will work cheap, are entrusted with the formation of the minds of our youth, who will to a certain extent copy their masters, and although their bodies may not limp, their minds will be both sluggish and deformed. Hence the necessity of having teachers correct gentlemanly persons well prepared for their arduous responsible office, and fit models for the youth of the country to imitate. Schools for the education of teachers should be immediately established and sup-

ported out of a fund permanently appropriated for that purpose.

Competent common school teacher inspectors should be appointed to prevent the disqualified from entering into the responsible *profession* of teaching.

The laxity or ignorance of many of our inspectors are the causes of the low and almost useless condition of many of our common schools. They have acted upon the principle that a poor school is better than none.—Universal correct education is the only true security of life and property.

In proportion to the aggrandizement of the province, will be the complication of the various branches of public instruction and the importance of the direction which the whole may receive from the hand of government—while the details are left to the local powers, school districts or townships. Yet from what I have already witnessed of the rapid progress of education in some of the states of the Union, especially Kentucky, where the spirit of improvement, as well as the thirst for education, has but just commenced, I am satisfied that there, at least, a new era is forming in science and literature; for while reform is rapidly progressing in arts and sciences as well as constitutional governments, the education of our youth cannot go on the same circuitous route; but a system of educating, furnishing, and liberally paying a sufficient number of competent teachers commensurate with the wants of the people must be adopted and publicly and zealously supported; the situation of “common school teacher” must be rendered respectable and reputed to be an honorable employment that gentlemanly competent persons may seek it as a business for life; which may be done by a critical examination

of the teachers and a frequent examination of the schools by public exhibitions of their improvements, and by publishing reports awarding "merit to whom merit is due."

The Inductive system, founded upon nature and supported by facts, is superseding the former arbitrary copying system learned from books alone or principally;—by this system children are taught facts from observation and the examination of natural substances, which are presented to as many of the student's senses as are accessible, and number, color, sound, size, touch, form, and ponderosity, become familiar to them as properties of matter, by daily reference to the materials subjected to their examination, and as facts become strongly impressed upon the mind, the number of ideas is increased; they are soon enabled to comprehend the characters of those bodies as they are explained by their instructor, during experiments made by themselves for their analysis or decomposition; at the same time that the language peculiar to that science is learned without much exertion the fact the idea already existing in the mind the name, or word was needed, and thus the language of the science is taught without exertion, and natural science is taught by observation, not by the recollection of arbitrary names and almost incomprehensible descriptions of ideas obtained only by long and constant application from books, but by the easy and perfect natural channels of the senses, the names connected with a science (in common so difficult to retain) become a part of the ideas equally natural and associated in a plain common sense manner with the ordinary operations of the mind, or the common occurrences of life. What an interesting epoch is this in the history of letters and of science generally! What an era in scholastic

erudition, and what ample security for the future will be afforded the people through all such parts of the world in which useful science shall be generally taught—that governments shall be well administered, and popular rights respected and protected. If this reform in science should prevail and be universally adopted, the time will have arrived when ignorance “(satan) shall be bound for a thousand years.”

The Rev. Mr. Peers of Louisville, Kentucky, is teaching his pupils the art of self government and self instruction, he does not govern at all by fear—his objection to fear as a governing principle is that it debases and lessens the dignity of man ;—but he governs his pupils by cultivating and strengthening the ennobling and elevating faculties and feelings of our natures, strengthening the social virtues, and increasing intellectual enjoyment. How pleasing is the view of his twenty boys, in whose countenances are seen strong marks of manly reflection and thought, with a strong wish to be correct in all their answers to his questions, and desire to please, without one symptom of fear upon that or any other occasion ; they are between the ages of six and twelve years, and although they have been under his charge but a few months, he has rendered moral instruction so familiar to their understanding that they enter into the examination of the few passages of scripture daily read and commented upon with interest and good feeling. His first year of instruction is a year of observation and experiment by which to store the minds of his pupils with facts and ideas that may serve as a basis for a superstructure of the most useful kind, not a parrot-like noisy or showy imitation of some eminent literary man, but the knowledge of *mind*, of *thought*, and of *reflection*, tracing effects, to causes and provid-

ing to avoid (or support the unavoidable) evil, and embrace and enjoy the blessings of this life as they are presented to us; they are already familiar with the first principles of chemistry and mineralogy, and performed without instruction several beautiful experiments, and explained the phenomena as they occurred in a manner not only satisfactory but pleasing—know something of botany, geology, and natural history, were (small as they are) entrusted with the management of the very valuable glass furniture of his beautiful and well selected laboratory, his electrifying machine (which cost \$150;) his air pump was of nearly equal value. Though much cheaper furniture might have explained the facts as well as those that are so expensive, yet these, from their dazzling splendor, make a strong impression on the mind; everything being perfect in their construction no failure can defeat any experiment, and the mind has nothing to supply to make up a complete operation, and when another less perfect instrument shall be used by the students, and defects are found, their clear recollection of this and its operation will enable them to supply the defects.

By the “Inductive System,” the students collect *facts* and accumulate *ideas* from *observation*, and having a mass of facts, a fund of ideas perfectly familiar and at command, they are prepared for study of such arts and sciences as require the exercise of the reasoning faculties, their laudable ambition is gratified by the certainty of success, and of the rewards most valued by the good and virtuous.

Lord Brougham says—“The *schoolmaster* is “abroad in the land”—“Mind begins to assume “her place, and ignorance, with her handmaid “vice, must recede before her like darkness before the morning sun, or clouds before the

“wind. Blow, blow, breezes blow, rise, rise
“resplendent orb, with thy universal vivifying
“and darkness dispelling beams—and hasten
“the great and the good reform when mind shall
“rule.”

All of which is most respectfully submitted.

CHARLES DUNCOMBE,

*Acting Commissioner for
obtaining certain information.*

To the Hon. the Commissioners, }
Doctors Morrison & Bruce. }

APPENDIX.

EXTRACT FROM M. COUSIN'S REPORT, AND THE PREFACE TO THE ENGLISH EDITION.

By furnishing a Preface to the American edition of the Report of M. Cousin to the French Government, "On the state of public instruction in Prussia," the publication of which has excited such a lively interest in England as well as in France, I do not think it necessary to eulogize its noble author or the merits of his incomparable work. The fact that M. Cousin, the scholar, the philosopher, and the legislator, has examined and reported by an appointment of the *French Government*, the workings of that admirable system of instruction adopted by Prussia and Germany, is a sufficient guarantee to make this volume welcomed by every American citizen. Many parts of this system of public instruction are not adapted to the spirit and feelings of the American people, nor to their form of civil government;—Yet from the results of this great experiment in giving the *whole people* that *kind and degree* of instruction which they need, some of the most useful and practical lessons may be obtained. The nature and operation of the mind are the same in all countries, and the relations which exist between knowledge and the intellectual and moral faculties remain unchanged under every system of instruction and every form of Government.

In Prussia, for the last fifty years there has been, from experience and experiment, a constant accumulation of practical knowledge; the evils either of teaching or of legislating, which appeared, have received a remedy, and the highest point of excellence of one age has been made the sterling point of improvement by the age succeeding. This experimental knowledge is what we want; the reason why we legislate for the education of the people so badly, is, *there is no instruction in the past*. If full and able reports on the different systems of instruction had been made, there would be a record of practical information which would contain lessons more valuable to the teacher and legislator than all the new projected theories and systems that were ever promulgated. But on the great subject of education there has been no book kept; there is no light in the past to throw its rays into the future; no voice to teach, and no decisions to counsel. With us what was experiment fifty years ago is experiment still. That which was conjecture then is uncertainty

now. On the subject of education, teachers and nations had but little communication with each other—no exchange of views and sentiments—no mutual aid—each one has toiled alone, and their practical knowledge has been buried with them.

But M. Cousin has made a full and faithful statement of the works and practical application of the well tried school system of Prussia. The American edition of this work will furnish our legislators, school committees and school teachers, with instruction not only from the highest authority, but also from the most enlightened source. The general circulation of this report will in my opinion greatly improve our organized systems of public instruction, and furnish some of the most useful and practical hints to the guardians and teachers of our schools.

The School systems which the several States in this Union, with the exception of four or five, have devised and adopted are miserable, deficient, and defective. Perhaps the workings of our best systems are such that even these exceptions should not be made. Says a very distinguished jurist and philanthropist;*—"Looking to the models of Germany and France, no system of public instruction has yet been organized in any of the States, and in none has the appropriate work of legislation been more than commenced. I do not hesitate to avow the belief that without regulations far more extensive than have yet been introduced—a control far more enlightened and constant than has yet been exercised—and fiscal aid far more ample than has yet been afforded, it is vain to expect that the character of our common schools can be truly and permanently improved." In several of the States the "School Fund" is large, but not equally or judiciously distributed. In some of the States, again, these funds are of such a nature, or are so invested, that the annual income is but very small, while in many of the states this fund is so insignificant that it affords but little or no advantage to the schools.

There is some difficulty in fixing the size of the school fund. On this subject legislators and intelligent citizens have professed very different opinions. After having some opportunities for observing the influence of large and small school funds, I will take this opportunity to express my convictions on this disputed point.

The School Fund may be too large, unless it is sufficient to defray the *whole expense* of the schools. The princely school fund of Connecticut is an injury to her schools. In that state the District Schools are supported till the annual income of the public fund is exhausted—being about six months. The school houses are then closed for the remaining part of the year. Now, it is true, that what we get without asking for

* John Duer Esq.

or praying for, we do not care much about. Personal observation has shewn me that the common schools in Connecticut are sadly neglected. The intelligent and wealthy citizens of this state, (and it is so in many of the other states,) support *private* schools, and entirely shun and overlook the District School. I do not think that the common schools of Connecticut are as good as the common schools of Massachusetts or New-York. And the cause of this inferiority lies in her large school fund:—It does too much for the people unless it does the whole. But the school fund of Tennessee is too small. Its assistance is not felt, and therefore offers no inducement to the parents for making additional appropriations. Unless the school fund is sufficient to educate the *whole people*, I think the one which is now distributed in the State of New-York is in size the most judicious. It pays about one-tenth of the whole expence of the schools. This usually is sufficient to make the people support a good school for three months, for unless they do this they cannot draw the public money. When it is left optional with parents whether they educate their children or not, it is desirable to offer such encouragement and assistance that they will feel disposed to do their duty. This New-York does; but without doing the whole there is danger of offering too much assistance, and this Connecticut does. The funds may be so small, again, as to make the people wholly indifferent to the Government aid; and this is the case with Tennessee.

Now, I would recommend, that each state should raise a school fund, sufficient to the entire support of the schools—that a suitable school-house and apparatus, with a dwelling-house for the teacher, be furnished by the state for each district, and that every school-house be supplied with a well-qualified teacher, who shall receive from the state a suitable compensation. This, I think, is the proper size of a school fund.

The great difficulty is to educate and *secure* the *services* of a suitable number of able qualified teachers. I know of nothing in which this Government is so deficient as it is in competent teachers for her elementary schools. The people of the United States employ annually at least eighty thousand common school teachers. Amongst these eighty thousand teachers but a very few have made any preparation for their duties; the most of them accidentally assume this office as an employment. Now the schools will be like their teachers. Hence the necessity of having the teachers well prepared for their arduous responsible office. In Prussia they are prepared in the Normal schools. *Similar Institutions to these sho'd be established and supported with us by the State Governments.* The State of New York, which employs ten thousand elementary instructors annually, should have ten seminaries

for the education of teachers. The labors of teachers on an average cannot be expected to continue for a longer term than ten years. At this estimate the State of New York will require one thousand new teachers every year. Each of the ten seminaries might annually graduate one hundred. This provision would supply our schools with competent instructors. I am happy to state that an arrangement similar to this is about to be made in our state. In a sufficient number of the organized academies there is to be a department for the express purpose of educating teachers for our common schools. The teachers of these departments are to be supported in part by the Regent's fund. This arrangement under the present state of things is thought preferable to the establishments of separate distinct seminaries. In these departments for the education of teachers the students should become familiar with the branches they will be expected to teach, with the nature and operations of the young and growing intellect, and with the art of school government. Connected with each of these Normal schools (to use the Prussian name) should be a board of instructors, whose duty it should be to examine the students who have finished their studies and are disposed to offer themselves as teachers of common schools. It is sincerely hoped that the guardians of our elementary schools will be much more rigid than they hitherto have been. "In organizing the school system, inspectors were appointed to prevent the disqualified from entering into the responsible profession of teaching. They are to judge what candidates are prepared for instructing, and to admit none but such as are qualified. The laxity and ignorance of many inspectors are the two great causes of the low and useless condition of many of our common schools. They have acted upon the principle that a poor school is better than none, and have given certificates to those who they knew were unqualified. Thus the candidates examination under the board of inspectors is often little else than mere form and ceremony; affording no obstacle to ignorance and immorality, and no measure for the discovery and encouragement of real merit and ability."* The trustees of the Normal Schools may be appointed by the Legislature and constitute the board of inspectors.

Every state needs a separate officer of public instruction. The minister of public instruction in Prussia gives his whole attention to the school and state of education. But in our state the general superintendent of common schools is likewise Secretary of State. This is too much for one officer. There should be nothing to direct the attention of that minister who has the general supervision of the people's education. This public officer should also take the highest rank. In Prussia

* District School.

or in France the minister of instruction ranks with the highest officer of state. But singular as it may seem, in our own country, where education, if possible, is much more important, this is not the case. *Several of the states even have never had any such officer!!!*

District libraries should be established.—Every school district should have a library. Merely teaching the people to read will benefit them but very little unless they are furnished with books. From the want of books people are ignorant, and not in this country, generally speaking, from an inability to read. This, perhaps, to those who live in cities and large villages, may seem untrue;—this favored part of our citizens are rather annoyed with the fertility of the press—they have a greater want for time than for books, to read. But it is not so with the inhabitants of the school districts; but very few books reach this numerous class of citizens.—In some places there are town libraries, but even these are not visited by one person out of fifty in the town—they are too expensive, or too distant, or too elevated for the capacities and tastes of a majority of the people. Whenever these town libraries, however, have been opened, they are well supported. Their history and condition tell us that the people in the country have a disposition to read if they can have the privilege.

If there were libraries in every school district containing a suitable number of books, and of the right class, the country would be more of a reading community than the city; but so few are the works that ever circulate out of the city and villages, that the majority of the people in the country, seldom read anything whatever. The district schools in the State of New-York teach the most of the children in the state how to read, yet but very few in after-life make any use of this power; a great part, in a short time after their school-days are ended, entirely lose the power, or at least so far as to be ashamed to use it. Consequently, with a great part, the time spent in learning to read is lost; and this is not from the want of an inclination to read but from the want of such facilities as district libraries would offer.

These libraries may be recommended by the State Legislature; but it would not, perhaps, be expedient for the Legislature to order them, and then lay a direct tax upon the districts for the necessary funds. If the Legislature by small appropriations should offer some encouragement to these libraries and strongly recommend them, the most of the districts would obtain them without hesitation or delay.

The District Library may be located in the school house; a suitable room or book case being provided for the books. The teacher of the District School may act as the Librarian; the trustees of the District or the Inspectors of the town may constitute the purchasing committee, or there may be one

purchasing committee for the whole state ; and this appointed by the Legislature. In the latter case the same harmony might exist with respect to the wishes of the different sects that now exists in the Sunday school union. One dollar a year from each inhabitant in the District would furnish a good library ; this collection of books would enlighten the teacher as well as his scholars and employers. Connected with the library, if the inhabitants feel disposed, may be a small apparatus, philosophical and chemical ; likewise at leisure and taste may be given a cabinet of minerals, an herbarium, &c. ; these collections would excite an interest in the study of natural history—a study of great interest and usefulness to the cultivator and the mechanic.

In Prussia and in France a weekly paper and a monthly magazine are published by the government and sent to all the schools. The schools of the United States ask their respective State governments for the same assistance. I do not know that a part of the school fund could be more wisely expended than in defraying the expenses of a weekly paper for each elementary school. This paper should be devoted entirely to the great interest of primary education ; it should contain the improvements which are made in education in all parts of the world, the condition and improvement of the schools in the United States—the intellectual and moral state of the country—the number of its schools—and the character and qualifications of their teachers ; it should study the human mind and know what is adapted to it, and point out the distinction between a change and an improvement ; it should discover and make known the origin of the defects in the present system of instructions ; it should ascertain the number of children in the United States who are in school, and the number who have not or do not use the means of education ; it should make known the progress which the scholars make, and the amount of knowledge which the children acquire in these primary schools ; it should discover the interest which the parents take in the education of their children, and the protection and assistance which literary men give to elementary education ; it should convince the people of the necessity of virtue and intelligence in a free government ; it should describe the various approved systems of instruction and the forms of school government—the experience of aged teachers in imparting instruction in the elementary branches—the most approved school books and the best method of making the children feel an interest in their studies, and of making the schools pleasant and honorable. These are some of the high and important subjects of a government paper for the use of schools.

To send a copy of this paper to each of the Schools in the State of New York, ten thousand copies would be required.—This number could be published weekly for three thousand

dollars a year. One thousand more would edit it, making in the whole an annual expense to the great "Empire State" of only four thousand dollars. I do not think that this amount could be appropriated to a better purpose. An organ like this through which we may speak to our schools is wanted exceedingly.

I will close with a few remarks on the claims of common schools. "The necessity of virtue and intelligence among a free people is always admitted; yet the great majority of our citizens are almost wholly indifferent to the District Schools, —*the very sources of a nation's intelligence*; for, it is well known, nineteen citizens out of twenty receive all their education in them. In our common schools our nation receives its character and education. Then is not the condition and character of these schools a matter of the highest importance? They have in embryo the future communities of their land: with them the empire and liberty of these States must rise or fall, for they are at once the repositories of freedom and the pillars of the republic. Should not every individual feel the deepest interest in their character and condition? Should not the strong arm of Government be thrown around them for a protection? And should not the wisdom of legislation watch over and counsel them with a parental solicitude? To what purpose shall we enact laws unless there is intelligence to perceive their justice—principle to which they can appeal? And what other fountains of intelligence have we for the *whole people* but our common schools? The learned and wealthy should likewise see that the education of the infant mind is far less expensive to them than the support of the aged criminals,—that the fruitfulness of their minds depends not so much upon the richness of the soil as upon the intelligence of the cultivators, and that the labor of him whose head can help his hands is far more profitable than the service of the ignorant. This more favored part of the community should see likewise that universal education is the only true security of life and property."*

The Factory Commission, the Poor Law Commission, and other public and private inquiries have tended more and more to reveal the extent and urgency of our own intellectual and moral wants; while the perfect and harmonious picture of a system of education in full activity among a whole people differing in religion, laws, language, and habits, which Mr. Cousin had laid before France, has attracted the attention of

* District School.

enlightened and benevolent men, and has been mentioned with the profound admiration due both to the system and to the author of the report in all the foremost Journals of the country in the pulpit, and in the senate.

These cheering symptoms of a general tendency of the public mind of England towards the subject of national education have been watched with solicitude, and hailed with delight by all who are impressed with its importance ; but by none with so much as by Mr. Cousin himself, who, highly as he estimates the approbation of England, will think his reward far higher if the labors he has devoted to his native country shall turn to the profit of her true and energetic ally in the cause of human improvement.

I have translated this book in the hope that by placing it within the reach of those to whom not only the languages, but the size and price of the original, might prove obstacles, it might excite the notice of the classes most interested in its diffusion. With that hope I have laboured to make it as plain as I could ; and though as a translation it can have no other merit, I will not disguise that on this head I am most anxious to find I have succeeded.—If not, I must plead in my own defence that nothing is so difficult as to find in the language of one country, words expressing the laws, institution, and usages of another.

I offer it to no one as an amusing book ; and even while I say I hope I have made it plain, I mean only to the patient reader who will go through it. There is such a coherency of parts, both in the fabric it describes and in the description, that no one will fully understand it who cannot bear the toil of following the author step by step. Portions may be selected which shew the beautiful spirit pervading the whole, and which must, I should think, touch any human heart ; but its merit as a piece of legislation—as a system living and working—can only be appreciated when studied connectedly and in detail.

The reasons that have influenced me (with the author's concurrence) to omit the report on Royal and Ducal Saxony, which forms nearly half of the original volume, are mainly two:—First, the consideration mentioned above, that it was only by making a small and cheap volume that I could accomplish the end I chiefly aimed at ; secondly, that the part I have omitted embraces secondary instruction, or the education given in the Gymnasia (*i. e.* learned or grammar schools) of Saxony, and also still higher department of Universities. M. Cousin was of opinion that it would be well not to divert any portion of public attention from the subject of primary instruction—*i. e.* that education which is absolutely necessary to the moral and intellectual well-being of the mass of the people. This alone is treated of here. If it should

appear that the English public desires to hear more on this matter, I may perhaps, unless it happily fall into better hands prepare, under M. Cousin's direction, a volume on secondary instruction, including what he has already published on the learned schools of Saxony, and adding matter upon which he is at present occupied. But this will depend on the reception given to the present attempt.

Whether it be done or not, I entreat the reader never to lose sight of the fact that what is here laid before him, although having in relation to its special object a substantive completeness, is still only a part of the whole, and that it is *as a whole* that the national education of Prussia is so peculiarly worthy of admiration and of study. The introductory view of the "general organization" &c. gives the outline of which the first portion alone is, for the present, filled up.

Constituted as the government of this country is, and accustomed as it is to receive its impulses from without (a state of things approved and consecrated by the national ways of thinking) it would be contrary to reason and to experience for it to originate any great changes. This is not recognised either by governor's or governed as any part of its duty;—it is to the public mind therefore that those who desire any change must address themselves.

It is not worth while at the present day to discuss whether or not national education be good. It is possible to imagine a state of society in which the laboring man, submissive and contented under some paternal rule, might dispense with any further light than such as nature, uncorrupted by varied wants and restless competition, might afford him; but if that golden age ever existed, it is manifestly gone,—in this country at least, for ever. Here the press is hotter, the strife keener, the invention more alive, the curiosity more awake, the wants and wishes more stimulated by an atmosphere of luxury, than perhaps in any country since the world began. The men who in their several classes were content to tread step for step in the paths wherein their fathers trod, are gone. Society is no longer a calm current, but a tossing sea. Reverence for tradition, for authority, is gone. In such a state of things who can deny the absolute necessity for national education?

Supposing however all agreed as to this first point,—how many weighty and difficult questions still remain! How many obstacles present themselves to the adoption of that which here stands before us, not in theory and conjecture, but in tried and successful practice? It may be useful to consider a few of those objections.

And first, as to compulsory education.—The idea to which I have alluded above—that the prime excellence of a Government is to let alone,—is so deeply and universally preval-

ent here, that there is little chance of a measure, however beneficent, being popular, which is unquestionably an infringement of liberty. Leaving however the question whether exemption from restraint is of itself the great *desideratum* for *men*, we may safely affirm that for the class most deeply interested in the present inquiry—*children*, no such exemption is or can be contemplated, or advised. The real point at issue is whether the constraint shall be a salutary or a pernicious constraint; a constraint by which their whole future lives are sacrificed to the present interests of the persons who have the disposal of them; or a constraint, the object and tendency of which is to secure to them for life the blessings of physical, moral, and intellectual health. “If children,” says the writer of the excellent article in the *Foreign Quarterly Review* (No. 24) “provided their own education, and could be sensible of its importance to their happiness, it would be a *want*, and might be left to the natural demand and supply; but as it is provided by the parents and paid for by those who do not profit by its results, it is a *duty*, and is therefore liable to be neglected.”

The interference which government has lately exercised on behalf of the children of the manufacturing population, has, however, settled the question as one of principle; it is no longer anything but a question of degree; for if the right of parents over their children can be invaded for the purpose of securing to children an exemption from one class of evils, it can in averting another; and according to all sound reasoning it ought, if those evils be shewn to be of sufficient magnitude, to claim interference. It is irrational to expect that persons who have not had the advantages of education can form any estimate of the nature and extent of those advantages.—“Persons,” says the able writer just quoted “of uncultivated and torpid minds, are not aware to what an extent education can raise, enlarge, and stimulate the understanding; in how great a measure it insures a person’s happiness, and makes him both independent of the world, and a safe and peaceable member of society.” Here and there we find an individual to whom strong sense and a lively curiosity reveal the magnitude of his wants; but a man has already gone beyond the first rudeness and apathy of ignorance who longs for knowledge. Are, then, the rudeness and apathy of the fathers a reason for transmitting them unaltered to the children? Or, to go higher, are the false notions, the useless acquirements, the imperfect instruction of the ill-educated of the wealthier sort, a reason that because they are satisfied with themselves, an enlightened government should permit the same waste and destruction of moral and intellectual faculties to go on from generation to generation?

To those who are influenced by precedent I am thankful to be enabled to give the following facts, for which I am indebted to a gentleman to whom M. Cousin looks for all the assistance in the great cause of education, that profound and learned acquaintance with the subject, united to ardent zeal, can afford :—

“I have always been astonished that no researches have been made by any German into the antiquity of *Schulpflichtigkeit* (school obligation, i. e. the obligation of going to school) in the several states of the Empire.—The only work I know that touches on the subject is that of J. K. F. Schlegel ‘*Über Schulpflichtigkeit and Schulzwang*,’ (school compulsion) &c. 1834; but this only regards the Hanoverian dominions. From that book I learn that this obligation is *at least* as old as 1681 in the Principality of Calenberg; as 1689 in that of Celle; as 1663 in the Principality of Hildesheim; as 1752 in the Duchy of Bremen and Verden. From other sources I find that it is at least as old as 1643 in Saxe-Gotha; as 1767 in Lippe Detmold; as 1769 in Prussia. It has long been enforced in New England and Connecticut; and for the gentry, Barons, and freeholders of Scotland, there is an Act of the Scottish Parliament compelling them to send their sons to the grammar schools as far back as the fifteenth century,—1466 if I recollect right.”

This may serve to correct the erroneous notion prevalent here, (among a host of others on the same subject) that the legal obligation to educate children is a modern invention of the “Military and despotic government” of Prussia. It is desirable that it should be distinctly understood, that though the following report relates to Prussia alone, the provision for popular education is by no means peculiar to that country. It is also common to speak of popular education as entirely the offspring of the reformation, and as if not peculiar to the protestant states, at least carried to a much higher pitch in them than in the catholic states.

“There is,” says the high authority whom I have just quoted “no truth in this, in a general sense; and, on a particular comparison, in none of the Catholic states would the people be found so neglected in this respect as in Hesse Castle and even in Hanover, and the *Kingdom* of Saxony, pre-eminent for *classical* education, as far behind Bavaria and Austria in *popular* instruction. The Germans give as an instance of the low state of primary education in Royal Saxony, (the case is very different in the Duchies) that the places of schoolmasters are there commonly filled by mere candidates of theology. In Scotland we should think this qualification very high.”

The best answer however to those who urge the supposed hardship to parents of being obliged to educate their children

is to be found in the supplement at the end of the present volume, published last year, in which it has shewn, from indisputable documents, "that the parents of Prussia actually *anticipate* the period at which the legal constraint begins;" that the number of children attending the public schools in 1831 actually exceeded the whole number of children existing in the Monarchy, between the ages of seven and fourteen, the period prescribed by law, and out of this latter number we have to deduct all who are educated at home, at private schools, all who are sick, &c.

Another misconception which appears to me common in this country is that the system of national education delineated by M. Cousin, is some new plan or mode of teaching. I have even seen objections made to it in print, on the score of the tyranny of compelling parents to educate children on this or that "method" approved by Government. It might seem sufficient to refer such objections to the book, but unfortunately this process is tedious, and in the mean while the reader who supposes they are acquainted with what they discuss, is misled. Not only (as will be seen in this report) is every parent at full liberty to educate his own children either in his own house, or at a private school, or at the schools provided by the State, but these latter schools are not even bound to any particular books or modes of tuition "in order" as the law expresses it, "to impose no shackles on the constant onward course of improvement."

The choice of books is left to the masters and the local committees appointed by Government for the immediate superintendence of schools, and consisting chiefly of fathers of families resident in the parish which supports the school.—The conferences of school masters, (which, though voluntary, are encouraged by the Government,) are also for the express purpose of comparing their views and their experience, and thus carrying forward the improvement of the schools.—Whenever a choice of schools is within the reach of parents, that choice is left perfectly free, and on the grand subject of religious difference, it will be seen, that nothing can exceed the anxious care of the Government that the most delicate conscience should not be even alarmed, much less oppressed.—"Masters and Inspectors" says the law, "must most carefully avoid every kind of constraint or annoyance to the children on account of their particular creed," &c.

It has been asserted by some persons with an ignorance, which, if it be sincere, is so shameless that it almost deserves to be confounded with dishonesty, that the tendency of the system recommended by M. Cousin is anti-religious. To this every page of the book is an answer. Indeed were I to express a fear on this head, it is that it is far too religious for this country; that the lofty unworldly tone of feeling, the

spirit of veneration, the blending of the love of God, and of the good and the beautiful with all the practical business and the amusements of life, is what will hardly be understood here, where religion is so much more disjoined both from the toils and from the gaieties of life. To me it appears that there is not a line of these enactments which is not profoundly religious. Nothing, it is true, is enjoined as to form or creeds ; but, as Mr. Cousin truly says, "the whole fabric rests on the sacred basis of Christian love." As the most affecting, and I must say, sublime example of this spirit, I refer my readers—especially the humbler and, as I hope more numerous class of them, to the description of the little schools for training poor schoolmasters in such habits, and with such feelings as shall fit them to be the useful and contented teachers of the humblest cottagers of the most miserable villages.

Here is poverty, to which that of many among our working classes is affluence, and it is *hopeless*, for no idea is held out of advancement or change—Yet if ever poverty appeared on earth serene, contented, lofty, beneficent, graceful, it is here. Here we see men in the very spring time of life so far from being made, as we are told men *must* be made, restless, and envious and discontented, by instruction, taking indigence and obscurity to their hearts for life, raised above their poor neighbours in education, only that they may become the servants of all, and may train the lowliest children in a sense of the dignity of man and the beauty of creation in the love of God and of virtue."

I confess myself almost hopeless of the transplantation of such sentiments hither. Religion is made the theme of the fiercest and most implacable contention, mixed up with newspaper squabbles and with legal discussions; her bright and holy garments are seized and soiled by every angry and ambitious hand.

It seems to me, too, that we are guilty of great inconsistency as to the ends and objects of education. How industriously have not its most able and zealous champions been continually instilling into the mind of the people that education is the way to advancement—that "knowledge is power" that a man cannot "better himself" without some learning! and then we complain, or we fear, that education will set them above their station, disgust them with labour, and make them ambitious, envious, and dissatisfied! we must reap as we sow; we set before their eyes objects the most tempting to the desires of uncultivated men; we urge them on to the acquirement of knowledge by holding out the hope that knowledge will enable them to grasp these objects; if their minds are corrupted by the nature of the aim, and embittered by the failure which *must* be the lot of the mass who is to blame?

If instead of nurturing expectations which cannot be fulfilled, and turning the mind on a track which must lead to a sense of continual disappointment, and thence of wrong, we were to hold out to our humble friends the appropriate and attainable, nay, unfailing ends of a *good* education;—the gently and kindly sympathies; the sense of self-respect, and of the respect of fellow men; the free exercise of the intellectual faculties; the gratification of a curiosity that “grows by what it feeds on” and yet finds food for ever; the power of regulating the habits and the business of life, so as to extract the greatest possible portion of comfort out of small means; the refining and tranquilizing enjoyment of the beautiful in nature and art, and the kindred perception of the beauty and nobility of virtue; the strengthening consciousness of duty fulfilled; and to crown all “the peace which passeth all understanding;”—if we directed their aspirations this way, it is probable that we should not have to complain of being disappointed, nor they of being deceived. Who can say that wealth can purchase better things than these? And who can say that they are not within the reach of every man of sound body and mind, who by labor not destructive of either, can procure, for himself and his family, food, clothing and habitations?

It is true, the same motives wearing different forms, are presented to all classes. “Learn,” that you may “get on,” is the motto of English education. The result is answerable. To those who think that result satisfactory, a change in the system, and above all in the spirit of education, holds out no advantages.

There are two or three other points which I would fain recommend to the peculiar attention of the reader. One of the most important is the absolute necessity of securing a constant supply of well trained schoolmasters. Time and experience have, it is to be supposed, nearly removed the illusion of “mutual instruction” as a substitute for the instruction communicated by a mature to an immature mind; as an auxiliary in certain mechanical details, no one disputes its utility. Observation long ago convinced me of the entire truth of the maxim laid down by the Prussian government, and approved by M. Cousin, that “as is the master so is the school.” On this subject I cannot refrain from quoting a German writer in whose opinion I fully concur.

“Such schools (the Lancasterian) are undoubtedly of use in countries like France, where almost nothing---or England where nothing systematic and adequate has been done for the education of the people; but they can never serve but as a temporary shift which cannot be taken as a substitute for education. They can do no more than give a certain mechanical

dexterity in reading, writing, and cyphering. The religious instruction is confined to a soulless learning by rote. Instruction in language, singing, drawing, and in exercise of the intellect, are wholly wanting. The influence of the teacher on the mind and character of the scholar, or his own mental cultivation, are not so much as thought of. Thus then a system of tuition, the lifeless mechanism of which was fifty years ago appreciated in Germany, and laid aside for methods better calculated for the true culture of man, has been adopted by France, England, &c., with an ardour which betrays total ignorance of the advance of the science of education in Germany. The village schoolmasters of Germany do much more to form the minds of their pupils than Lancaster and Bell can do; and no German who knows what his country possesses, can recommend a system of teaching which may indeed be of use in harmonizing the lowest mob of England or of France, but where men and christians are to be formed, is defective and ill contrived.

A system of education is nothing without an unfailing supply of competent masters. It is the fashion to apply the "free trade" maxims to every thing. Reasons enough present themselves why such maxims are wholly inapplicable to this matter, but there is no room for them here. It may once for all safely be denied that the people can be judges of the quality of teachers as they are of bread or of shoes. To this the hundreds of children in the middle classes whose whole childhood is consumed in experimental wanderings from school to school, and the thousands and ten thousands of the lower, whose parents know little more than the fact that they pass a certain number of hours daily in a given room, can bear witness. The evil is an irreparable one. Not only is the portion of time consumed in a bad or imperfect school irrecoverably gone, but bad habits of all kinds are acquired which no future education can entirely eradicate. The candid and rational among the less educated classes are glad to be aided by the friendly judgment of their more instructed neighbors on this point; and would, I doubt not, readily admit the advantage of having some better security than their own opinion, or rather conjecture, for the competency of the instructors of their children.

In every country where primary institution has been carried to a height, the necessity of establishments of this kind has been felt. In spite of the length of this preface, I cannot resist the temptation to add the following curious and valuable details on the history of seminaries for teachers, for which I have again to acknowledge my obligations to the learned author of the article on national education which appeared in the *Edinburgh Review* (No. 116) and which first called the attention of England to Mr. Cousin's report.

It is almost humiliating to have to notice another objection to this scheme of national education,—viz., that it is foreign; an objection, which if carried through and acted upon consistently, would render the intercourse between civilized nations absolutely barren. But since there are, it seems, still persons with whom it has weight, it may be well to quote M. Cousin's striking appeal against similar prejudices in Faance.

"National rivalries or antipathies would here be completely out of place. The true greatness of a people does not consist in borrowing nothing from others, but in borrowing from all whatever is good, and in perfecting whatever it appropriate. I am as great an enemy as any one to artificial imitations; but it is mere pusillanimity to reject a thing for no other reason than that it has been thought good by others."

REGULATIONS

OF THE

School Committee of Boston.

According to the City Charter, twelve gentlemen are annually elected, one in each Ward of the City, who, "jointly with the Mayor and Aldermen, constitute the School Committee for said City, and have the care and superintendence of the public schools."

The public schools of this City consist of one Latin Grammar School, one English High School, nine Grammar and Writing Schools, including one for Africans, and sixty-four Primary Schools, including three for Africans; in which instruction is freely given to children of both sexes.

CHAPTER I.

Regulations relating to the Board of the School Committee.

1. At the first meeting in each year which shall be held on an early day, in the month of January, the Board shall be organized by appointing a Chairman, a Secretary, a Visiting Committee or Sub Committee for each

school, consisting of at least seven for the Latin & English High Schools respectively, and of three for each of other schools, a standing committee on books, and a standing committee of reference, with the primary school committee.

2. The Chairman shall preside at the meetings of this Board, shall call any special meetings thereof when he shall deem it ne-

Duties of the }
Chairman. } cessary, or at the request of any two of its mem-
 } bers in writing, and shall be the organ of com-
 } munication with any other branch or branches
of the City Government relative to any votes and doings of this
body which may have respect to a co-operation with them in the
transaction of business ; copies of the same having been duly fur-
nished by the Secretary.

In the absence of the Chairman his place shall be filled, pro
tempore, by the Board.

3. The Secretary shall have charge and custody of the re-
cords of the Board and of all papers directed by them to be kept

Duties of the }
Secretary. } on his files ; he shall keep a fair and full record
 } of all the proceedings of the Board, in each case
 } stating the commission, and the names of the
committee ; he shall notify the meetings of all committees when
requested by their chairman ; and shall perform such other du-
ties as may be assigned to him.

4. The visiting or sub committees shall visit their respective
schools at least once each quarter of the year, and as much of-

Duties of visit- }
ing or sub com's. } tener as they can make it convenient, for the
 } purpose of attending carefully to all the exercis-

Quarterly Ex- }
aminations. } es of each class ; of inspecting the school bill
 } and inquiring into the deportment and progress
of the pupils, in order to commend good conduct and improve-
ment, and discountenance negligence and vice. It shall be their
duty to embrace these opportunities to converse freely with the
instructors on the affairs of the schools, to elicit from them such
occasional suggestions as may be turned to their benefit, to en-
courage the faithful and deserving instructor in his arduous du-
ties, and to detect and mark delinquencies.

The chairman, or some member of each sub committee, shall
make a report in writing at each quarterly meeting to the school

Quarterly }
Reports. } committee of their examination and its results,
 } and of several circumstances above specified
 } which may have occurred, and of any accommo-

dations or indulgencies they may have granted to any instructor,
or any alterations they may have authorised in their particular
school. And at each quarterly meeting, the chairman, or any
member of each sub committee who may be present, shall be
called upon for such report ; and in case of omission to make it
the school committee shall pass a vote enjoining the sub com-
mittee to proceed without delay in the performance of such duty,
and shall adjourn to receive their report.

The sub committee shall visit their respective schools at least
one week previous to the annual exhibitions to select the candi-

Annual exami- }
nation for Me- } dates for the medals, and shall critically examine
dals. } members of the first class for this purpose.—
 } They shall have power to award not exceeding
six medals in each school, excepting in the Hawes school, where

not more than four, and in the African school, where not more than two shall be awarded to either sex; and it is understood that no scholar who has received a medal shall at any time afterwards be a candidate for another in a school of the same rank. "General scholarship" shall be taken into consideration in the assignment of medals.

The chairman of each sub committee shall return the names of the successful candidates to the Secretary of this Board, at least three days previous to the day of exhibition.

The sub committees shall give their advice to the instructors on any emergency, and take cognizance of any difficulty which

Difficulties in } may occur between the instructors and the pa-
the schools. } rents of pupils relative to the government or in-
struction of their school. An appeal however
to the whole Board is not hereby denied to any citizen.

In case of a vacancy in any school in the place of either of the instructors, the sub committee of the school shall, if they

Vacancies a- } think proper, procure a temporary supply, and
mong the in- } give notice of such vacancy to this Board, that
structors. } they may proceed to fill the office in question.

In addition to these specific duties of the sub committees, it shall be their duty generally to make any temporary arrange-

General du- } ment they may think proper relative to the dis-
ties of sub com- } cipline and instruction of their schools, or the
mittees. } convenience of the instructors in cases not pro-
vided for by the general regulations of this Board.

The chairman of each sub committee, or special, or standing committee, shall call a meeting of the same immediately after

Meetings of } their appointment, when the times of future
sub committees. } meetings and such other arrangements shall be
agreed on as shall be deemed by them expedient.

All the official acts of such committees shall be done in meetings of the same duly notified by the chairman, and shall be expressive of the sense of a majority of any such committee, and when reported to this Board shall be submitted in writing.

5. Although the interests of the schools demand sub committees of this Board, each member of it shall consider it his duty

Duty of each } to exercise a watch over the literary and moral
member of the } improvement of every public school in the City,
Board. } and to afford personal assistance at their visitati-
ons, exhibitions, and on all other occasions, according to his abi-
lity and convenience.

6. At the quarterly meeting in May, two examining committees shall be annually appointed by this Board consisting each of

Committee for } three members, the one for the English Gram-
the annual exa- } mar Schools, and the other for the Writing
minations. } Schools; each of which Committees shall be

joined by as many other members of the Board as can conveniently attend. Each of said committees in the month of May or June visit all the schools for which they are appointed, and critically examine the pupils in *all the branches* taught therein, in order to ascertain the condition of the schools, and shall report previous to the annual election of the instructors, that the appointments of the board on that occasion may be judiciously made. A similar annual and critical examination shall be made in the

month of May or June of the Latin School and of the English high school, by the respective visiting committees of those schools; and a similar report for the same purpose and embracing the same objects shall be made by these committees.

7 At the quarterly meeting in August, committees shall be annually appointed who shall attend the annual exhibitions, shall

Committees } bestow the medals on the pupils to whom they
for annual ex- } have been previously awarded, and shall exer-
hibitions. } cise such control over these exhibitions as they
may judge proper. It is desirable that some one of the com-
mittee who examined the candidates for medals should bestow
them.

7 In the month of August annually, all the instructors in the
Choice of In- } public schools shall be elected, and their sala-
structors. } ries voted, and no alteration in the amount of
salary of any instructor shall be made at any
other time.

The masters of the several schools shall be elected by ballot, the other instructors shall be elected by nomination of their respective sub-committees, after they shall have conferred with the masters with whom said assistant instructors are to be associated.

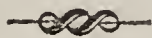
9 In the month of January annually this board shall nominate and appoint a suitable number of gentlemen, whose duty collec-

Committee for } tively it shall be to provide instruction for chil-
primary Schools } dren between four and seven years of age, agree-
ably to the direction of the town at the institution
of the *Primary Schools*: and shall authorise the committee of these schools to organize their body and regulate their proceedings as they deem most convenient, and to fill all vacancies occurring in the same during the year; and this board will respectfully receive from them such communications as they may please occasionally to make on the subject of those schools.

10 Stated quarterly meetings of the school committee shall be

Quarterly } held on the second Tuesday of February, May,
meetings. } August, and November, at four o'clock P. M.
at the room of the Mayor and Aldermen.

Quorum. } 11 A majority of this board is required to con-
stitute a quorum, for the transaction of any
business.



CHAPTER II.

Regulations common to all the public schools under the immediate superintendence of the school committee.

1. The instructors in all the public schools shall hold their
Instructions. } offices one year, unless sooner removed by this
Board; and no continuance or preferment of
them in office shall be predicted on any consid-
erations but those of moral and literary qualifications and prac-
tical skill.

2. As all the instructors derive their authority from this Board they shall be responsible to it for the faithful discharge of their duties, and shall all be equally respected and obeyed by their pupils.—The masters being more immediately responsible for the good order and improvement of the schools, shall hold priority of rank; and their directions in relation to teaching and all other internal business of the schools, shall be followed by the other teachers.

3. The instructors shall be punctual in their attendance at the hours appointed for opening the schools; strict regard shall also be paid to the hours assigned for dismissing the school; and during school hours the instructors shall faithfully devote themselves to the public service.

Prayer. } 4. The morning exercises of all the schools shall commence with reading the Scriptures and prayer.

5. All the masters shall be required to keep bills or books, which shall be furnished at the public expense, and shall remain the property of the schools, in which they shall record the names, ages, places of residence, and absence of their pupils, with such other particulars as shall enable the committees at their visitations to form an adequate idea of the state of the schools.

6. The head master of each School shall make to the Secretary of the Board a regular semi-annual return on the first week of February and August, of the number of pupils then *actually belonging* to his school agreeably to the blanks prepared for this purpose.

7. The masters shall commit to writing, in general terms, their requirements and prohibitions, and shall read or cause them to be read aloud in school at least once a month.

8. The instructors shall give the children constant employment and endeavour by judicious and diversified modes to render the Exercises of the schools pleasant as well as profitable, shall exercise firm, prudent and vigilant discipline; shall punish as sparingly as is consistent with securing obedience, and shall govern by persuasion and gentle measures so far as may be practicable.

9. The instructors may avail themselves of the assistance of their most advanced pupils whenever it can be faithfully and judiciously applied in order to render more effectual service to the schools.

Oral instruction. } 10. It is desirable that oral instruction should be combined with the use of books in all the exercises.

11. For violent or pointed opposition to his authority in any instance, or for the repetition of an offence, the master may exclude a child from School for the time being, for the purpose of reflection and consultation, and thereupon shall inform the parent or guar-

Plan of the measure, and shall apply to the sub committee for advice and direction.

Where the example of any pupil is very injurious and contagious, and in general in all cases where reformation appears

For general misconduct: } hopeless, it shall be the duty of the master, with the approbation of the sub committee to have recourse to suspension from the school. But any child under this public censure who shall have expressed to the master his regret for his folly or indiscretion, as openly and explicitly as the nature of the case may require, shall give evidence of amendment, shall, with the previous consent of said committee be reinstated in the privileges of the school.

12. To promote the well being of their pupils, it shall be the duty of the instructors, as far as is practicable, to exercise a ge-

General oversight of pupils by instructors. } neral care and inspection over them as well out of school as within its walls, and on all suitable occasions to inculcate upon them the principles of truth and virtue. And the master shall be required, subject to the advice of the sub committee, to expel from school any pupil who shall manifest an habitual and determined neglect of his duties.

13. In cases of difficulty in the discharge of their official duties, or when any temporary dispensation in their favor is desired

Sub committee give advice. } the instructors shall apply to the sub committees of their respective schools for advice and direction.

14. It shall be the duty of the instructors to exercise suitable vigilance with regard to the apartments of the same by them re-

Care of buildings. } spectively occupied, that there may be no unnecessary injury sustained by them; their special attention is also required to the ventilation and temperature of the school rooms, and to the cleanliness and comfort of the pupils.

15. No instructor in the public schools shall be allowed to keep a private school of any description whatever, or to attend to the

Private schools } instruction of any private pupils before 6 o'clock P. M. except on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons.

Subscriptions forbidden. } 16. No subscription, for any purpose whatever shall be introduced into any public school.

Committee prescribe studies. } 17. The books used and the studies pursued in all the public schools shall be such and such only, as may be authorized by this board.

Pupils required to have books. } 18. No pupils shall be allowed to retain their connection with any of the public schools, unless they are furnished with the books and utensils regularly required to be used in the schools respectively, except by permission of the sub committee.

Recess. } 19. There shall be a recess of from five to ten minutes for every pupil, each half day, that the children may not be injured by too long confinement.

20. No pupil shall be allowed to depart before the appointed hours of leaving school, except in case of sickness or some pressing emergency, of which the master shall be judge.

Removal from one school to another. } 21. No pupil shall be admitted to the privileges of one school who has been expelled from another, or while under the sentence of suspension.

Every pupil who shall be transferred from one public school to another of the same rank, shall be the bearer of a certificate from the head master of the school he leaves, expressing his standing and character, which shall be demanded of him, as a condition of his admission, by the master to whom he applies for that purpose. In this case no examination of his qualifications shall be required.

Children going from the public grammar and writing schools to the Latin or English High school shall also be the bearer of certificates setting forth character and qualifications as an indispensable condition of their being admitted to examination for the standing to which they aspire in those schools respectively.

22. No child shall be admitted into any of the public schools who is not the bearer of a certificate from a physician that he has been vaccinated or otherwise secured against contagion of small pox. This certificate shall not be required of the pupils who go from one public school to another.

23. There shall be two exhibitions of the schools annually, viz:—the first of the boys' schools on the Wednesday next preceding commencement at the University in Cambridge; the second, of the girls' schools on the Wednesday next preceding the first Monday in November. At the former the Franklin medals, and at the latter the City medals, are to be bestowed.

24. The following holy days and vacations shall be granted alike to all the schools, viz:—Every Wednesday and Saturday afternoon throughout the year, Christmas day and fast day, Thanksgiving day, and the remainder of the week; the day of the General Election in January; one day in each year for the general training, when in Boston, the fourth of July; the week beginning on the first Monday in June; the remainder of the week after the exhibition of the schools in August, and the two succeeding weeks, and no other days except by a special vote of this board.

In addition to these, the Latin School and English High School shall be entitled to the three days of public exhibition at Harvard University, and to the week beginning on the second Monday in June.

CHAPTER III.

Regulations for the English Grammar and Writing Schools.

These Schools are the second in order in the system of public education established in this City. The following are their names, situation, and date of establishment.

1. Elliot School, N. Bennet street.	For boys	1713.
2. Adams School, Mason street.	For boys & girls	1717.
3. Franklin School, Washington st.	For boys & girls	1785.
4. Mayhew School, Hawkins st.	For boys	1803.
5. Hawes School, South Boston.	For boys & girls	1811.
6. African School, Belknap st.	For boys & girls	1812.
7. Boylston School, Fort Hill.	For boys & girls	1819.
8. Boudoin School, Derne street.	For girls	1821.
9. Hancock School, Hanover st.	For girls	1822.

In these Schools are taught the common branches of an English Education. They are designed to conduct children from the primary schools to such an acquaintance with reading, writing English grammar, geography, and arithmetic, as shall be sufficient for the ordinary purposes of life. To these schools apply the following regulations in addition to those laid down in the preceding chapter.

1. In each of these schools which is attended exclusively by boys, there shall be a master and an usher in the Grammar Department, and a master and an usher in the writing department. In those where females exclusively attend there shall be a master and three female assistants in each department. In those where boys and girls both attend, the place of one of the ushers shall be supplied by three female assistants.

The Hawes school and the African school are exceptions to the above rule.

In the Hawes school there shall be a master and one usher, or two female assistants instead of an usher.

In the African school there shall be one master.

2. In every school the grammar master and the writing master shall each have the regulation and control of his particular department, so far as regards the classification, the mode of instruction, and the discipline of his pupils; provided that the regulations of one department do not interfere with those of the other; but in all cases involving the interests of both departments where a difference of opinion or conflict of authority shall arise

Head masters. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{the grammar master shall be the head master of} \\ \text{the school, and his decision shall be paramount.} \end{array} \right.$

3. Children may be admitted into the grammar and writing schools at the age of seven years who can read easy prose. They shall be examined by the head master; but no examination shall be made

Age, qualification
for admission.

of those who bring a certificate of recommendation from the primary school committee.

Appeal. } In case any application shall be rejected by the master an appeal may be made to the sub committee of the school.

Time of admission. } 4. To prevent inconvenience to the instructors and derangement of the classes, no new pupil shall be admitted into these schools except on the first Monday of every month through the year, unless when transferred from one school to another.

Time of continuance. } 5. Boys shall not be permitted to retain their places in these schools beyond the day of their next annual exhibition after they shall have arrived at fourteen years of age, unless by special leave from the sub committee. Girls shall be allowed to attend these schools until the next annual exhibition after they shall have arrived at the age of sixteen.

Attendance in both departm'ts } 6. No pupil shall be allowed to give his general or exclusive attention in one department of the school without a special permit from the sub committee.

Hours of school. } 7. From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in October, annually, the hours for keeping these schools shall be from 8 o'clock, A.M. until 12, and from 2 o'clock, P.M. until 5; and from the first Monday in October to the first Monday in April from 9 to 12. and from 2 to half past four.

Dismission of younger children. } 8. From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in October, the younger children may be dismissed one hour before the regular time of closing the morning school.

Tardiness. } 9. Children belonging to these schools shall be required to be present within five minutes after the hour of opening the same; tardy children shall be received, but not without some notice of their fault.

Classes in grammar department. } 10. The grammar department of these schools shall be divided into four classes subject to such subdivisions as the master may judge expedient; the books and exercises shall be as follows:

Studies requir'd } CLASS IV. No. 1.—Emerson's National Spelling Book. 2. Pierpont's Introduction to the National Reader.

CLASS III. Nos. 1 & 2 continued, and 3.—Murray's English Grammar, abridged by Alger.

CLASS II. Nos. 1, 3, continued, and 4.—Pierpont's National Reader. 5. Field's Geography and Atlas. 6. Frosts exercise in parsing.

CLASS I. Nos. 1, 3, 5 continued, and 7.—Pierpont's American First Class Book. 8. Goodrich's History of the United States. 9. Exercises in composition and declamation.

Studies allowed } The following studies and books may be introduced at the discretion of the master :

'Smellies Philosophy of Natural History, Ware's edition, Blake's conversations on Natural Philosophy, Worcester's Elements of General History, Parker's Exercises in English composition.

Bible. } On Monday the children who usually read in the Bible. } the first class book shall instead of it read in the Bible.

Studies required in writing department. } 11. The pupils of the writing department shall be divided into classes according to their progress : the books & exercises shall be as follows :

1. Emerson's North American Arithmetic, Part 1. 2. Colburn's first lessons in Arithmetic. 3. Colburn's sequel to First Lessons. 4. Robinson's Book-keeping.

All the children shall be taught writing and arithmetic daily ; and the teachers are required to furnish the pupils copy slips written or from good engravings, or to write the copies themselves in the writing books.

The pupils of the first class shall be taught to make pens.

CHAPTER IV.

Regulations for the English High School.

This School is situated in Pickney street. It was instituted in 1821, with the design of furnishing the young men of this City who are not intended for a collegiate course of study, and who have enjoyed the usual advantages of the other public schools, with the means of completing a good English education to fit them for active life, or qualify them for eminence in private or public stations. Here is given instruction in the elements of mathematics and Natural Philosophy, in History, natural and civil, and in the French language. This institution is furnished with a valuable mathematical and philosophical apparatus for the purpose of experiment and illustration. To this school apply the following regulations in addition to those laid down in chapter II.

1. The instructors in this school shall be, a master, a sub-master, and so many assistants as shall give one instructor to every

Number of instructors. } thirty five pupils, provided that no additional assistant be obtained for any increase less than twenty one. It shall be a necessary qualification in all these instructors that they have been educated at some respectable college. In addition to these there shall be a teacher of the French language.

2. No boy shall be admitted as a member of this school under the age of twelve years; and the master shall require of every age of admission } candidate for admission previously to examination, a certificate from his parent or guardian that he is of the age required.

time of entrance } 3. Boys shall be examined for admission into the school only once a year, viz: on the Tuesday and Friday next succeeding the exhibition of the school in August.

4. Candidates for admission shall produce from the masters of the schools they last attended, certificates of good moral character, and presumed qualifications for admission into this school. It shall however be the duty of the master to examine them in reading, writing, English grammar, modern geography, and Colburn's First Lessons in Arithmetic and Sequel, in which they shall be found to have made satisfactory progress in order to be admitted.

5. The school shall be divided into three classes; and such Classes and Sections } sections of these shall be formed as may be found expedient. Each class shall have its appropriate studies assigned it; and to every class and section of the same the master shall be required to give a due proportion of his personal attention.

6. Individuals shall be advanced according to their scholarship, Progress and continuance in schools } and no faster, and none shall be permitted to remain members of the school longer than three years.

7. Each class or section shall occasionally be reviewed in its Reviews. } appropriate studies; and general reviews shall once a quarter be instituted in all the previous studies.

8. From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in October annually this school shall begin at eight o'clock A. M. and end at 12; and from the first Monday in October to the first Monday in April, it shall begin at 9 A. M., and end at 12.

From the first Monday in April to the first Monday in October it shall begin at 3 P. M. and end at 6; and from the first Monday in October to the first Monday in April it shall begin at half past 2 P. M. and end at half past 4; except that in the months of March and October it shall begin at 3 P. M. and end at 5.

9. Tardiness beyond 5 minutes shall be considered a violation of school hours, and exclude the delinquent.

Studies required } 10. The books and exercises required during the course of instruction in this school are the following:—

Class III—No. 1. Colburn's Intellectual and written Arithmetic,—2. Worcester's ancient and modern geography.—3. Wor-

cester's Elements of general History.—4. Goodrich's History of the United States.—5. Stansbury's Catechism on the constitution of the United States.—6. Reading, grammar, declamation.—7. Composition.—8. Colburn's Algebra.

Class II—Nos. 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. continued,—and 9. Book-keeping by single and double entry.—10. Legendre's Geometry.—11. Natural Philosophy.—12. Paley's Natural Theology, with Paxton's Illustrations.

Class I—Nos. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. continued,—and 13. Paley's Moral Philosophy, Whitaker's edition.—14. Paley's Evidences of Christianity.—15. Practical Mathematics, comprehending navigation, surveying, mensuration, astronomical calculations, &c.; together with the construction and use of mathematical Instruments.—16 A course of experimental lectures on the various branches of natural philosophy.

The several classes shall receive instruction in writing.

The following studies are allowed in the first class if the master think proper to introduce them; Smellie's Philosophy of natural History, Ware's edition, Chemistry.—Intellectual Philosophy.—Linear drawing.—Logic.

ADDRESS

OF

THE TRUSTEES

OF THE

New England Institution

FOR THE

EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

TO

THE PUBLIC.



It is four years since an act incorporating the Trustees of the new England Asylum for the blind was passed by the Legislature of Massachusetts. Why so much delay has occurred in commencing operations will be duly explained.

The Trustees have now the satisfaction of announcing that their institution has been in actual operation for five months; and that their most sanguine expectations of the capacity of the blind for receiving an education have been fully verified in the progress of the interesting beings under their charge.

But before giving any account of the state of their institution, the Trustees beg leave to make some general remarks on the blind ; on the light in which they have been held, and the manner in which they have always been treated by their fellow men.

Blindness has been in all ages one of those instruments by which a mysterious Providence has chosen to afflict man ; or rather it has not seen fit to extend the blessing of sight to every member of the human family. In every country there exists a large number of human beings who are prevented by the want of sight from engaging with advantage in the pursuits of life, and who are thrown upon the charity of their more favored fellows. And it will be found that the proportion is at all times about the same in the same countries : for not only is the proportion of those who shall be born blind decreed in the statutes of the Governor of the world, but the number of those becoming so by what we call accident, is regulated by laws as infallible and invariable ; and it is as little probable that by any accident all mankind should lose their eyes as that by any precaution all should preserve them. Blindness then is one of the evils entailed upon man, and it becomes him to grapple with it and try to diminish its pernicious effect.

The blind may be divided into two classes ; those born blind, and those becoming blind by disease or accident : the latter class being infinitely the most numerous.

The frequency of blindness varies in different climates, and upon different soils ; it is most frequent in that part of the temperate zone bordering upon the torrid, and decreases as we approach the poles. It has been ascertained by accurate censuses taken in different countries of Europe, that the number is fearfully great, and that although they are screened from the public eye they exist in almost every town and village. In middle Europe there is one blind person to every 800 inhabitants. In some Austrian provinces it has been accurately ascertained that there is one to every 845 inhabitants ; in Zurich, one to 747. Farther North, between the 50th and 70th degree of longitude, they exist in smaller proportions ; in Denmark are found one to every 1000. In Prussia there are one to every 900. Egypt is the country most afflicted with this evil, and it may be safely calculated that there are about one blind to every 300 seeing persons.

In our own country, no means have been taken to ascertain with exactitude the number of blind ; the returns made by some censuses have been ascertained to be very erroneous ; nor is there any reason to suppose that the laws which act on nations under the same latitude in Europe should be null here : indeed the Trustees have ascertained

that in some small towns not exceeding 2000 inhabitants, and where the census gave but one or two blind, there really exist four, five, and six. These unfortunate beings sit and wile their long night of life away, within doors, unseen and unknown by the world; and society would be startled were it told that there exist in its bosom so many of its children who never see the light of heaven: it would hardly credit the assertion that there are more than *eight thousand blind persons in these United States*; yet such is undoubtedly the case.

The public must be ignorant of this fact; to suppose it is not so, and yet that it had done nothing for so large a class of the afflicted would be an impeachment of its charity and its justice; and the Trustees appeal to it in the full confidence that the ready answer will be "what can be done for them?"

Fellow citizens, much can be done for them; instead of condemning the poor blind man to stand at the corner of a street and ask for charity, or to remain cooped up within the walls of an almshouse, or to sit and mope away his solitary existence among his happier friends alike a burthen to them and himself—you may give to him the means of becoming an enlightened, happy, and useful member of society; you may give him and his fellow blind the means of earning their own livelihood or at least of doing much towards it; you may light the lamp of knowledge within them, you may enable them to read the scriptures themselves,

"And thus, upon the eyeballs of the blind,
'To pour celestial day."

All this you can do by the establishment of institutions for their education; and it is to demonstrate this fact that this circular is addressed to you. The Trustees do not ask assistance for the Institution alone, but they call upon the public to consider the situation of the blind everywhere, and everywhere to extend to them those benefits which are greater than the most liberal alms that can be bestowed.

This is not a common call, nor is it a common case, for the object proposed differs materially from most charitable establishments: first in that there is no possibility of deception, since no one can doubt or deny the claim which the blind have upon the charity of their more fortunate fellows; and second, that the object is an economical one to the community. It is to take from society so many *dead weights* that it is proposed to educate the blind and enable them to get their own livelihood: and society ought to consider any capital so invested as a *sinking fund* for the redemption of its *charitable debt*: as a provision for preventing the blind from becoming taxes to the community. In proof of this the trustees would try to draw the attention of the public to the dif-

ferent kinds of work which are performed by the blind in the different institutions in Europe ; some of which may also be seen at the infant institution under their direction.

That a blind man may become a first rate professor of music, frequent example has taught every one ; it remains however for many to be convinced that a blind man may become a good teacher of mathematics, the languages, and almost any science ; that he may gain a decent livelihood by the labour of his hands in the fabrication of baskets, mats, mattresses, twine, &c. &c. To do these things he needs only an apprenticeship in an establishment devoted entirely to this purpose, and pursuing a peculiar plan of education adapted to his wants, and it is in aid of their efforts to establish such an institution that the Trustees call upon their fellow-citizens for encouragement and support.

It is alike the character and honor of our age, that society is not content with administering charitable aid to the distressed, but that it seeks to strike at the root of the evil and prevent its recurrence ; it remains yet for our country to apply this principle to the pauperism of the blind. It is not now the time to discuss the direct and indirect tendency of blindness to produce pauperism ; suffice it to say the blind are generally paupers ; they have always been so, and the place to seek the blind has always been at the way side begging for alms. Nothing was done for their education until about forty years ago, when the humane Abbe Haüy undertook to educate some blind children in his own house, and his success was so great that the Government of France employed him to establish an institution in Paris. This he did, and it became so interesting an object that he was called by the Emperor of Russia to St. Petersburg, for a similar purpose ; and after successfully putting his system into operation there, he laid the foundation of a school for the blind at Berlin.— He invented the method of printing in raised characters made tangible and sensible to the blind ; he also constructed maps, musical notes, &c. but left the subject in a very imperfect state at his death.

Similar institutions have been since founded, and are in successful operation in Amsterdam, Vienna, Dresden, London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Liverpool, and other places, the condition and operation of which have been thus noticed in a report made to the trustees by Dr. S. G. Howe :—

“ The European institutions for the education of the blind may be divided into two classes ; those established and supported by the Governments, and those which owe their foundation and support to the charitable efforts of individuals ; the latter are by far more useful than the former.

“ There can be no more delightful spectacle than is presented by these establishments, where you may see a hundred young blind

persons changed from listless, inactive, helpless beings, into intelligent, active, and happy ones; they run about and pursue their different kinds of work with eager industry and surprising success: when engaged in intellectual pursuits, the awakened mind is painted in their intelligent countenances; and when the whole unite in sacred music there is a display of deep felt interest, of fervid zeal, and animating enthusiasm, which I have never seen equalled.

"The proposed end of these different institutions is to give to the blind the means of supporting themselves, and this is effected with different degrees of success.

"I visited all the principal institutions for the education of the blind in Europe, and found in all much to admire and copy, but much also to avoid.

"Those institutions, which are founded and supported by the government, labor under many disadvantages necessarily attendant upon such a connexion; and it may be said without injustice to the persons employed, that they are obliged to follow such a system, and make such exhibitions as will redound rather to the glory of the state than the good of the pupils. Hence so much of useless parade and show—hence so much time and patience spent upon learning to perform surprising but useless things. Those, on the other hand, which are kept up by individual effort and public benevolence, fall into the error of considering their pupils too much as objects of charity, and of petting and caressing them too much.

"The institution for the education of the Blind at Paris, as it is the oldest, and as there is about it more show and parade than any other in Europe, has also the reputation of being the best; but if one judges the tree by its fruit, and not by its flowers and foliage, this will not be his conclusion.

Its founder and the great benefactor of the Blind, the Abbé Haüy, invented and put into practice many contrivances for the education of the blind; and otherwise rendered the institution excellent for the age, and the time it had existed; but as he left it, so it has since remained. It receives, supports, and educates about a hundred blind youth; and there being no other in France, it follows that there are only one in 300 of their blind who receive an education. The great fault in the Parisian Institution is the diversity of employment to which the pupils are put; and the effort made to enable them to perform surprising but useless tricks. The same degree of intellectual education is given to all, without reference to their distinction in life; and a poor boy who is to get his livelihood by weaving or whip-making, is as well instructed in mathematics and polite literature as he who is to pursue a literary career. Now, there is no reason why a shoe-maker or a basket-maker should not be well educated; provided he can learn his profession thoroughly, and find the necessary leisure for study. But if this would be difficult for a seeing person, how much more is it so for a blind one, who to obtain any degree of excellence in a trade, must apply himself most intensely and most patiently. The necessity of this is made apparent by the situation of those youths who come out from the Institution at the end of the seven years passed there; they have devoted five hours per day to mechanical employment, but to so many different ones, that they know but lit-

tle of any. Weaving, whip making, mat and net making and spinning, &c. &c. have so effectually divided their attention, that at the end of the year devoted to learning the one, they have almost entirely forgotten that which they acquired the year before.

"It has however, with all its faults, been productive of great good, and has sent out many pupils who are not only well educated and happy men, but most useful members of society; among others may be cited Mr. Paingeon, the celebrated Professor of mathematics at the University of Angiers. This interesting young blind man came forward as a candidate in the public controversy for the prizes in mathematics at Paris;—and after carrying them all off, was named to the professional chair at Angiers.

"There are in Germany five institutions for the education of the blind, which are carried to different degrees of perfection; some are under the direction indeed of men of science, but who are cramped in their exertions by various causes; others however are less fortunate.

"The one at Dresden, for instance, is under the management of a most excellent lady, but whose only merit is extreme kindness to her interesting charges; the intellectual education of the pupils is almost entirely disregarded, and they are not taught to read or write: nor am I aware that if she had the disposition, she would have the power of giving them a better intellectual education.

"The institution of Berlin, under the direction of the excellent Professor Zeune, is better managed; but that gentleman cannot carry his views into operation: for instance, he is obliged to employ seeing teachers, because a commissioner wills it, where blind persons in his own opinion might perform the duty infinitely better. How often is it the case that in institutions of various kinds, the practical knowledge and experience of those immediately engaged are overruled by those who look into the subject but once or twice a year, and insist upon directing the whole.

"It may be safely said that none are so well fitted for teaching the blind as the blind themselves; nay more, the blind can become most excellent teachers of seeing persons: I have known a blind person manage a class of twelve seeing boys to perfection; and what was astonishing he had sufficient moral influence over them to keep them in the greatest order and prevent them from playing those tricks which boys will do when their master does not see them.

"In the Berlin Institution, as always must be the case in well regulated ones, great attention is paid to instructing the blind in music. Who does not know that the blind generally evince greater capacity and inclination for music than seeing persons; and who can doubt that the blind man who has acquired his knowledge of music scientifically, may teach it scientifically also, and thus fill a useful sphere in society?

"The Institution owes its existence indirectly to the illustrious Haüy who passed through that place on his way to St. Petersburg whither he was summoned by the Autocrat to establish an Institution for the education of the blind. This latter however, though founded and encouraged by an Emperor, has fallen into decay, while the Berlin establishment is continued almost solely by the philanthropic labors and hearty zeal of a few simple citizens.

"In the Berlin Institution, though the pupils are taught to read

and write, they have very few printed books; and the information is given orally. This arises however from the expense of books, and not from any doubt of their utility; in fact Professor Zeune exerts himself to the utmost to increase his library for the blind.

"He prints with types filled with pin points. The pupils are taught also geography, history, languages, and the mathematical as well as lighter sciences. The time is partly occupied in learning different trades; and on the whole the pupils are as well if not better qualified to make their way in the world as those from the Paris Institution. There are four similar institutions in Germany, the best of which seems that of Vienna; there is also an excellent one at Zurich, which I did not visit.

"The Institution for Indigent Blind in London is an excellent and most charitable establishment, and productive of great good.

"It is indeed a most delightful sight to see so many blind youth assembled in the workshops, all neatly clad, and with smiling faces busily employed at their different trades; and all earning a large part of their livelihood by their own labor. Instead of the solitary helpless being which we so often see, the blind here presents us the spectacle of an active, industrious, and happy youth, who, finding constant occupation in the exercises of his physical powers, and being buoyed by the hope of rendering himself independent of charity, has no time and no inclination for repining at his lot, or for drawing unpleasant comparisons between himself and those about him.

"The Institution in London is intended merely for indigent blind, and their intellectual education is not at all attended to; nor do they occupy themselves about anything but their trades, with the exception of a little music. There seems to be a doubt in the minds of the person who directs the Institution, of the utility of teaching the youths to read themselves by means of raised letters; which is singular enough to one accustomed to see the immense usefulness and pleasure afforded to the blind by the use of these books.

"The doubt is apt to be raised however only by good men who question the utility of knowledge in any person, beyond the strict demands of his calling. It is said, that they can always have the assistance of a seeing person to read to them; but besides that the blind cannot always have such a person at their elbow, there is infinitely more pleasure and advantage to be derived from feeling out the letters themselves. They can stop, and go back, or read over a passage a dozen times, reflect upon it as long as they choose, and refer to it on any occasion.

"In Mathematical studies particularly, where only a few brief problems and rules are given, books printed with raised letters for the use of the blind are almost indispensably necessary. The advantage, nay! the necessity, of printing the Gospel in raised letters for the use of the blind will be apparent to every thinking Christian. There is a large number of our fellow creatures within our reach, who might be supplied with the New Testament at small expense compared with that laid out in sending it among distant heathen.

"It may be said indeed that the blind can hear the Bible read by their friends, while the heathen cannot: but on the other hand let one consider what a precious treasure a copy of the Testament

in raised letters would be to a blind man; he would pore over it, read and re-read it, until every word became familiar; and how much greater probability there would be of its producing a good effect then in the hands of those who have a thousand other things to occupy their thoughts. Then too, let one consider the all-important nature of the study; and how jealous one should be of trusting to aught but the cool decision of his own reason.

"In fine let any pious christian put the case to himself and say whether he could be content with having the scriptures read by another; whether he could abstain from feasting his eyes on God's sacred pages; or refrain from shutting himself up in his closet with his maker and his revealed word."

"What his eyes are to him the fingers are to the man deprived of sight, and to the one equally as to the other is solitary reading and reflection a useful and healthful exercise.

"Nor to the blind alone would the Scriptures printed in raised letters be a precious treasure; there are many people who from weakness or temporary derangement of the organs of sight, would be happy to spare their eyes and read with their fingers. The acquisition of this faculty is not at all difficult, any person may in three or four days enable himself to feel out very easily the raised letters and read pretty fast.

"I mentioned in a letter from Europe to your sub-committee, a plan which I had conceived of publishing one of the Evangelists in raised characters; without now detailing on all the methods which I would substitute for those hitherto used, I may say that it is founded upon the only principle which can possibly obviate the immense inconvenience of bulk and expense, viz. that of contraction, or stenography; a principle which if acted up to may, I am convinced, render books for the blind as cheap and as compact as those printed for our use. Whether this system shall substitute tangible for the visible forms of letters, or whether the symbols shall represent sounds is a secondary question.

"The institution at Edinburgh is on the whole the best I saw in Europe, it comes nearer than any other to the attainment of the great object of blind schools, viz. enabling the pupils to support themselves by their own efforts in after life. The establishment is not so showy as that at Paris, nor has it the same means which the latter possesses, and which receives an allowance of 60,000 francs or \$12000 per annum from government; nor has it printed books for their use, still they receive most excellent education and learn some most useful trades. The mattress and matmaking business are carried on by the pupils with great skill and success, and many are enabled to earn per diem nearly enough for their subsistence. They are mostly day scholars, and receive a sum of money in proportion to the work they do.

"The mat and mattresses which come out of the Institution, and which are entirely the work of the blind, are certainly better made than any others in the city, and command a higher price in the market. The pupils are occupied also in making baskets, which is a clean and pleasant employment, but not altogether so profitable as the others. They display great ingenuity, and finish very fine and difficult pieces of basket work, but it is a branch in which they have less chance of successful competition with seeing persons.—Indeed one great fault in the systems generally followed in Europe

is the attempt to counterbalance the natural infirmity of the pupil by his ingenuity, his patience, and the excessive nicety of his remaining senses, and to enable him to compete with seeing persons, in spite of the advantage they have over him. Now this ought not to be the leading principle ; on the contrary, taking it for granted that the seeing person ever must have an immense advantage over blind in all handicraft works whatsoever, we should seek out for him such employment as least requires the use of eyes.

“There are some occupations, such as knitting, weaving, &c. which a blind person may perform nearly as well as a seeing one, but in the present age the introduction of machinery has superceded in a great measure this kind of labour. In mat making, the blind man can nearly compete with the seeing one, and therefore should it be taught him as a means of making himself useful, and necessary to others ; for after all the efforts of charitable men this unfortunate class will ever be in a precarious situation until they can become so useful as to command attention : men are charitable by fits and starts only, but self interest never sleeps ; if the blind can appeal to this they are sure of being heard.

“Many of the pupils in the Edinburgh Institution are, as I observed, day scholars ; that is, they reside with their friends, and come in to work and study every day, and an allowance is made to them proportioned to the work they do, if this is adequate to their support.

“I would observe that sufficient attention is not paid to the personal demeanour of the blind, either by their parents or in the public institutions ; they contract disagreeable habits, either in posture or in movement ; they swing their hands, or work their heads, or reel their bodies ; and seem in this way to occupy those moments of void, which seeing persons pass in listlessly gazing about them. They are apt also to be exceedingly awkward and embarrassed in company, and are often very bashful while very vain ; all this can be corrected by pursuing the same means as used with seeing children, and by accustoming them to society.

“Blind persons can become as well qualified as seeing persons for many employments which are generally thought beyond their powers, they can teach languages, history, geography, mathematics, and many other sciences, perfectly well ; I know not why they should not make the first rate councillors, and think it possible that they might fill the pulpit both ably and usefully.

“I have the pleasure of calling my friend, Monsieur Rodenbach, member of the Belgian Congress, a man who possesses great influence, and who often makes that house ring with original and *naïve* speeches ; he is an agreeable orator, and an active business man, and a graceful member of society, and yet has been stone blind from his childhood.

“I hope that the blind will not have to struggle against unfounded prejudices in our country, yet much do I fear that they will ; people are so accustomed to consider the blind as helpless dependents on others, that they will not believe them capable of a high and useful part in society, and when they see one of them, who by uncommon talent struggles and raises his head a little in the world, in spite of the weight by which society would sink him beneath its surface, they regard him as a passing wonder, and draw no inference in favor of his fellows in misfortune. That great mathematician and philosopher, the illustrious Saunderson, Professor at Cambridge,

who deserves a niche in the temple of fame between Newton and Laplace, drew one of his atheistical arguments from the false opinions of men concerning his powers; he said to a clergyman on his death bed, 'you would fain have me allow the force of your arguments drawn from the wonders of the visible creation, but may it not be that they only *seem to you wonderful*, for you and other men have always been wondering how I could accomplish many things which seem to me perfectly simple.'

"But to return to our notice of the different institutions; that at Edinburgh is certainly superior to any in England, and on the whole is so to that of Paris, and were it now in place I might detail to you many curious and interesting processes for facilitating the education of the blind; the general principle however is to combine intellectual and physical education in such a way as to qualify the blind for the performance of a useful part in the world; and of so storing the mind with knowledge that they may have a fund within themselves from which to draw in after life.

"The school at Glasgow is a more recent one, and is not yet equal to the one in Edinburgh in the advantages of intellectual education which it offers.

"The Liverpool school is remarkable for the very great degree of attention which is paid to the cultivation of the musical talents of the blind, and for their astonished success in it. An idea may be had of their proficiency from the fact that the product of their concerts is about \$3500 annually.

"I shall take care to put into the hands of your committee a more detailed notice of the different establishments which I have visited, and I now close by respectfully submitting to you the conclusions at which I have arrived respecting the general management of your proposed Institution.

"Keeping steadily in view the principal object, qualifying the blind to act a useful part in society, one ought to adapt his education to the sphere which the pupil will fill; choosing for every one the occupation in which the least possible necessity exists for the use of the eyes.

"Those who are fortunate enough to be above any pecuniary wants, may occupy themselves entirely with the developement of their mental faculties, and the acquisition of all kinds of knowledge; alternating their studies only with such mechanical employments as may be necessary for physical health. I can conceive nothing more delightful than watching and administering to the intellectual wants of a blind person of good parts, as they gradually unfold themselves; and enabling him to wander at will among the fields of fancy and science. Such a person may attain a knowledge of the classics, of ancient and modern languages, and of almost all kinds of science. There is nothing to prevent his becoming an elegant and accomplished scholar, and of being qualified to adorn society as well as to be a contented and happy being himself. Think of such a person, and compare him with one sitting in intellectual and physical darkness, and say whether it is not worth while persevering in your undertaking.

"In the education of indigent blind children, or of those whose principal dependence must be on themselves, I should hope that our institution will avoid the extremes into which the French fall on the one hand, and the English on the other. We should depend entirely neither upon physical nor intellectual education, nor sho'd

we lay down any general rule to be observed towards all pupils.— One ought to be even more observant of the bent of a blind boy's mind and the direction of his talent, than he is in the education of seeing children.

“Considering handicraft work to be the occupation in which the blind can compete to less advantage with seeing men than any other, it should be resorted to only in the case of those who manifest no decided talent for any thing else. Among twenty blind youth, there will probably be found four who possess a decided musical talent, this then should be assiduously cultivated, music sho'd be their principal study, and they should devote as much time as possible to it.

“If one or two should exhibit a strong inclination for mathematical studies, or display what may be called the teaching propensity that is the talent for communicating their knowledge, they should have these powers cultivated; they will surely do better by them in the world than by making baskets or mats.

“The majority whose talents are but ordinary should be taught some mechanical arts, such as mat, basket, or mattrass making and they should make it the chief object of their education to attain an excellence in them. I would not indeed prevent their learning to read and write, or acquiring a store of intellectual knowledge, but it should not be allowed to impede their way in learning their trade.

“I have often wondered, when in workshops of European blind institutions, that they did not have some one reading in the room while the pupils were at work. I do not believe that it would materially take off their attention from their occupation, and if they did not profit much from the reading, they would do so to a certain degree.

“The pupils who are to learn thoroughly any handicraft work, should not have their attention too much distracted by a multiplicity of occupations; it is true that there are some advantages attending the French method of teaching the children a half a dozen trades, as there are advantages attending almost every bad system; but they by no means outweigh the immense disadvantage of the want of that excellence in one trade which can only be acquired by strict and undivided attention to it.

“As the children destined to a trade should not devote too much of their time to intellectual pursuits, so on the other hand those educated for a higher occupation should not be left unacquainted with some mechanical occupations; they cannot have their mental powers always on the stretch, and as they have the same means of amusement as seeing children, they must be provided with some means of getting the necessary exercise and recreation.

“This may be obviated by a regular attention to work, and by introducing many amusements among them.

“I have often observed with a delighted eye the movement of the blind boys in Paris as they leave the institution to go to play; each grasps a cord held by a seeing boy, and follows him rapidly and unhesitatingly through narrow streets until they enter the immense “Garden of Plants” when quitting the string they run among the trees and frolic and play together with all the zest and enjoyment of seeing children. They know every tree and shrub, they career it up one alley and down another, they chase, catch, overthrow and knock each other about, exactly like seeing boys; and to judge by

their laughing faces, their wild and unrestrained gestures, and their loud and hearty shouts, they partake equally the delightful excitement of boyish play.

"It appears to me very probable that the delicacy of health so often the lot of the blind is owing to the want of proper circulation of the blood ; they being much of the time in a state of physical and mental rest.

"We must also adapt our institution to local circumstances, and in our workshops try to produce those articles best adapted for sale in our market. I have no doubt that the profit of work done in this country by the blind will be infinitely greater than in any other, owing to the higher price of labor ; and if one cannot make a blind man approach any nearer to the seeing workman in the amount of his gains, yet thanks to Providence, the gains of a laboring man with us are not so stinted that he would starve on their being diminished one quarter."

In submitting to the public this extract of the report of Dr. Howe, the Trustees are aware that they are furnishing to cavillers some opportunity of objecting to their infant establishment, on the ground that it is so difficult, even in Europe, to bring them to that degree of perfection which enables them to pay their own way ; but besides that the Trustees are unwilling to suppress any evidence in the case, they are convinced that they can steer clear of many of the difficulties which are to be encountered abroad, and they insist that too much consideration cannot be given to the fact that they will have fewer obstacles to encounter, and more circumstances to favor them than their predecessors. It cannot be that in these United States there exists a parish which would not give a salary to a blind organist in preference to a seeing one, provided they were equally well qualified, yet in Europe this is the case. There is not here this fixed prejudice to struggle with, nor yet the immense obstacle of the low price of labor, which in many parts of Europe is in the direct ratio to the means absolutely necessary for supporting life.

They have too the light and experience which the others did not, and can profit by their experiments, successful and unsuccessful.

The Trustees are well aware that the advantages of an education cannot be extended to all the blind ; and it is in the hope of doing some little good to them that the attention of their relatives is invited to some remarks on the subject of the domestic education of the blind :

"There is a great error prevalent among those who have friends or relations deprived of their sight ; and who imagine that too much kindness or too much attention cannot be lavished upon them. This is entirely a mistake, and it is quite certain that the greatest obstacle to the education of the blind children who are received into the European Institutions, is that their previous treatment has been such as to prevent the developement of their remaining senses.

"Parents absolutely smother the faculties of a blind child in kindnesses; 'the poor dear thing' is blind, say they, 'it cannot feed itself; it is blind,' 'and cannot dress itself;' and if it ventures across the floor alone the anxious mother runs and silently removes every obstacle, instead of teaching it a lesson by letting it run against them; and bye and bye, when she is not near the child it may severely hurt itself by falling over something of which it never dreamed.

Then the blind are continually addressed in a strain of pity,---they are reminded every moment of their misfortune, and taught to believe themselves inferior to their fellows, and burthens upon society.

Now nothing can be more injurious than such treatment of blind children, and 'It is all important to disseminate' in the community useful knowledge on the subject of infantile and early education; the mother is the most influential teacher in the world; and if few have correct ideas of their influence and their duties as teachers of their seeing children, we may say that almost none understand how to act their parts in relation to a blind infant. The compassion of the woman, the affection of the mother, doubly claimed by the misfortune of her infant, grows into fond doting; and as the anxious bird in the eagerness to warm its shivering nestling may stifle it beneath its feathers, so the mother of the blind child renders it doubly helpless by an excess of solicitude about it; by preventing it from supplying its own wants or putting forth any of its own energies *

"It should be strongly impressed upon the mother of the blind child that she ought to do no hing for it which it can by any possible pains do for itself; she should allow it to roam about where it will; there is no fear of her suffering it to come to any serious harm; there is no danger that the tendrils of maternal affection should fail to twine about the frail plant, but there is danger that they may encircle it so closely as to stint forever its growth.

"It would be useless to quote the immense attainments of many blind persons who have had the advantages of a proper education, or have been endowed with great talents, for such examples would rather tend to discourage many blind than induce them to strive at imitation, but I may notice what I have repeatedly seen; the extraordinary difference between blind youth possessing the same natural advantages but differently treated by their parents. I have known young men who could not walk out without a guide, nor occupy themselves in any handicraft work, and who could not even dress or feed themselves; they were mopeing helpless dependents, sitting bowed under the weight of an infirmity, and the consciousness of their inferiority which was recalled at every movement by the officiousness of their friends; they were alike useless to themselves and burdensome to those around them.

"I have known others too without greater natural advantages, who required little more personal attendance than seeing persons, who never were assisted in shaving, or dressing, or feeding themselves, or going about in the neighboring houses; who could go all over a city; nay who could ride on horseback in the country, and mingle with grace and spirit in the waltz and the other.

* Dr. Howe's Report.

amusements of society. These young men prided themselves in dispensing with the services of those about them as much as possible, and would take quite in high dudgeon any speech of condolence, or any allusions to their *inferiority*.

"In fact blind youth should not be reminded of his inferiority, nor taught to consider himself as inferior to his fellows; it is not only useless but discouraging, and his abilities ought not to be directed to the developement of those of his senses which remain to him. He ought to be made to attend to all his personal wants and comforts, he ought to be left to puzzle and grope out as many things as possible, and to be left rather in perplexity for an hour than receive assistance in the accomplishment of anything which it is morally impossible for him to do. And let me say that they can accomplish many things which to an inattentive observer would seem impossible; it would be hard, for instance, to convince many people that a blind man can by the sound of his voice ascertain whether a table or a sofa had been removed from a room which he had much frequented; that he can tell pretty correctly the age and size of a person from hearing him speak; or that he will correctly judge the character of another from the intonation of his voice in a conversation; that he can attain as much excellence in mathematical, geographical, astronomical, and other sciences as many seeing persons, and that he can become as good a teacher of music, language, mathematics, and other sciences, yet all this and more, can he do."

The Trustees have endeavored to base their institution upon broad and scientific principles, and have spared no pains to commence aright. They have procured from France one of the most accomplished young men who have been educated at the Paris Institution for the Blind; a young man whose acquirements in the classics, in history, mathematics, and general knowledge, would do credit to any seeing person of his age. He combines also with this the talent of communicating his knowledge to others.

The Trustees earnestly beg the attention of the public to this fact, which they consider of great importance, viz: the superiority of the blind to seeing persons as teachers of the blind; they agree with Dr. Howe that no person can so well understand and overcome the difficulties which a blind child has to encounter in learning, as one who had to encounter & overcome them himself. "I should consider," says he, "a school for the blind without blind teachers as necessarily imperfect."

The Trustees have also procured from Edinburgh a blind mechanic who teaches different kinds of work, which may now be seen at the institution.

They flatter themselves that they have already introduced into their institution some important improvements in the method of teaching the blind; as one instance, they would refer to the map at the end of this pamphlet which is a plan entirely new, and unknown in Europe. There the maps are made

with infinite pains and expense, by glueing strings onto another map pasted on a board ; besides the great expense and necessary clumsiness of which, they do not admit of the divisions and the lettering, which are here introduced. A map of this size would cost at Edinburgh, five dollars , and it would weigh three or four pounds, and not have half as many distinctions as this, which costs less than the one hundredth part of that sum.

The trustees deem it unnecessary to go into any particular detail of the method of instruction pursued at their institution, the specimens at the end of this pamphlet, the raised letters, the musical notes, &c. indicate that the touch is the sense upon which the blind depend for the acquirement of their knowledge. Their apparatus is as perfect, to say the least, as that of any other institution, and they confidently hope for success in accomplishing the object proposed by educating the blind.

Fully satisfied as the Trustees were themselves of the capacity of this neglected class for receiving an education, they were determined to prove it by experiment before making a call upon the public : on the return, therefore, of their agent from Europe with the blind teachers, they took seven blind persons from different parts of this State, varying in age from six to twenty years. These children taken at random have now been under instruction nearly five months, and can read correctly with their fingers, books printed for their use : they learn arithmetic faster than the generality of seeing children ; they acquire more correct and definite notions of geography from their maps than seeing children can, since they are unassisted by the written names ; and their progress in music is decidedly great. In regard to manual labor, some of the pupils can already fabricate mocassins and door mats, which are as strong and durable, and as handsome in appearance as those made and sold in our shops.

Finally, the Trustees considered that they have accomplished the most difficult part of the task in putting their institution into actual operation ; they have planted the tree—it depends upon a generous public to water it and rear it ; and they will only add, that if there be the slightest hesitation in the mind of any one about the propriety of encouraging the charity—if there be any one who shall entertain the shadow of a doubt of the utility of their Institution, its doors are open, let him come and see for himself.

REPORT
OF
A COMMITTEE
OF THE
REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY
OF THE
State of New-York,
ON THE
EDUCATION OF COMMON SCHOOL TEACHERS.

Presented to the Regents at their annual meeting, on the 8th day of January, 1835, and adopted by them at a subsequent meeting on the 20th of the same month.

AN ACT
RELATING TO PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Passed 14th March, 1835.

The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly, do enact as follows:

§1. The Superintendent of Common Schools shall procure and furnish to each of the school districts in this State, two copies of the Report of a Committee of the Regents of the University on the education of Common School Teachers, presented to the Regents on the eighth day of January last, for the use of said districts.

STATE OF NEW YORK, }
SECRETARY'S OFFICE. }

Albany, 10th April, 1835.

The foregoing is the first section of an Act providing for printing and distributing to the school districts a report therein referred to.

Although the Act does not prescribe the particular manner in which the copies of the report shall be kept for the use of the districts to which they are to be sent, the intention of the Legislature will be best answered by putting them into the hands of the district clerks, who should circulate them

for the perusal of the inhabitants, that all may be apprized of the provision made by law for the education of common school teachers.

JOHN A. DIX,
Supt. Common Schools.

At the annual meeting of the Regents of the University of the State of New York, held pursuant to the Statute in such case made and provided, at the Senate Chamber in the Capitol, on the 8th day of January, 1835.

PRESENT :

THE GOVERNOR,

THE LIEUTENANT GOVERNOR,

MR. YOUNG,	MR. SUDAM,	MR. CORNING,
MR. KING,	MR. DIX,	MR. WHETMORE,
MR. WENDELL,	MR. CAMPBELL	MR. McKOWN.
MR. PAIGE,		

Mr. DIX, from the committee appointed at a special meeting of the Regents of the University, on the 22nd day of May last, to prepare and report a plan for the better education of teachers of common schools, submitted a report, which having been read, was in part considered ; the final consideration thereof being postponed to the next meeting of the Board.

The following is the report as first submitted to, and finally adopted by, the Regents :

REPORT

Of a Committee of the Regents of the University of the State of New York, on the education of common school teachers, presented to the Regents at their annual meeting at the Capitol, in the city of Albany, on the 8th day of January, 1835.

To the Regents of the University :

"At a meeting of the Regents of the University of the state of New York, held on the 22nd day of May, 1834, a certified copy of an Act of the Legislature entitled 'An Act concerning the Legislature fund passed May 2d, 1834 was presented to the board and read ; and it appearing that the subject matter of the said act related to the application of part of the income of the literature fund to the education of teachers of common schools, under the direction of the Regents of the University, it was thereupon,

Ordered, That it be referred to Messrs. Dix, Bucl, and Graham to prepare and report to the Regents at some future meeting a plan for carrying into practical operation the provisions of the said Act."

In discharging the duty confided to them under the foregoing resolution, the committee have been deeply impressed with the importance of the subject. They are satisfied that it will depend much on the measures which may be adopted by the Regents in pursuance of the authority conferred on them by the act of the 2d May last, whether the leading & acknowledged defect in our common schools, the want of competent teachers, shall be remedied, or whether it shall continue to embarrass, as it long has done the efforts of the Legislature and of individuals to carry out our system of popular institution to the great results which it is capable of producing. In its organization, and in the annual contributions which are made to its support, the liberality of the Legislature and of the people on whom the burden principally falls, is in the highest degree creditable to the state; and if the effects of a large expenditure of money, continued for a series of years, have not been as beneficial as might have been anticipated from the amount of the expenditure, the causes are to be found in some defects of the system, for which an early remedy should be provided.

The committee have already said that the principal defect is the want of competent teachers; and the position is indisputable, that without able and well trained teachers no system of instruction can be considered complete. Much may be accomplished by a judicious choice of the subjects of study, and by plans of instruction divested of every thing which is superfluous; but to carry these plans into successful execution, talents and experience are indispensable, and if they are wanting both time and money are misapplied, and the effort which is put forth falls short of its proper and legitimate effects.

In other countries seminaries for the education of teachers have been deemed an essential part of the system of primary instruction. M. Cousin, in the year 1832, in his report "on the condition of public instruction in some of the provinces of Germany" asserts that "primary instruction is wholly dependent on the primary normal schools," or schools for the education of teachers; and he observes that in France, thirty have been established, "of which twenty are in full operation forming in each department a great focus of illumination for the people."

In Prussia, the system of public instruction had an earlier origin, and results far more extensive and beneficial have been obtained. It is more complete in its organization, and more efficient in its practical operation than any similar system, of which we have any knowledge. In the year 1833 that Kingdom had forty-two seminaries for teachers with more than two thousand students, from eight to nine hundred of

whom were annually furnished for the primary schools. The vocation of instructor is a public office as well as a profession. He receives his education almost wholly at the expence of the State ; his qualifications to teach are determined by a Board deriving its authority from the Government; his salary cannot be less than a certain sum, which is augmented as occasion requires, and the local authorities are enjoined to raise it as high as possible above the prescribed minimum. Finally, when through age or infirmity he becomes incapable of discharging his duties, he is allowed to retire with a pension for his support. These provisions of law have made the business of teaching highly respectable, and have secured for the primary schools of Prussia a body of men eminently qualified to fulfil the elevated trust confided to them.

It must be confessed that the efficiency of these measures is derived in a great degree from their compulsory character, and that they could only be carried into complete execution by a government having the entire control of the system of public instruction. It was apprehended that the subjection of the system to the discretion of the persons on whose contributions the schools depend for their support, might frequently thwart the government in its measures, and sometimes wholly defeat them. For this reason, parents are required by law to send their children to school, and they are punishable by fine if they refuse or neglect to do so. For the same reason the principle part of the expenditures necessary to comply with the law in maintaining the primary schools, paying the salaries of teachers, providing school houses with their appurtenances, furniture, books, maps, and apparatus, is paid by property and income in proportion respectively to the amount of each in value, and those on whose contributions the maintainance of the schools depends, are neither allowed to judge of the extent of the provision required for the objects referred to, nor to have any voice in the selection of their teachers, those provided by the state being employed under the direction of an authority independent of them. These features of the system are in a great degree irreconcilable with the spirit of our political institutions ; but the committee believe that public opinion may be stimulated to a just conception of the importance of making more ample provision for teachers, and thus supplying a deficiency, apart from which our system of popular instruction would be in equal inefficiency, as it is now superior in extent, in proportion to our population, to any other in the world.

Common school instruction in this state existed a long time upon the foundation of voluntary private contribution, before it was recognized and reduced to a system by public law. The result was to put in requisition the services of large

numbers of persons who by long practice had been familiar with the business of teaching; and it is doubtless to be ascribed in no inconsiderable degree to this circumstance, that the necessity of making some provision for the education of teachers was not felt at the time the common school system was established.

Although this important subject had been repeatedly recommended to the attention of the Legislature by several of the Governors of this state, no provision was made by law in conformity to these recommendations, until the year 1827, when an act was passed adding to the capital of the Literature Fund the sum of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars, for the avowed object of promoting the education of teachers. But as the annual income of the Literature Fund has been heretofore distributed among the academies in the state, without any restriction as to its application, it has in very few instances been devoted to the object in view of the law. To this remark there are however several exceptions. The St. Lawrence, Oxford and Canandaigua academies have each established a course of lectures and exercises for the preparation of teachers, and such has been their success with a very limited contribution from the public treasury that an augmentation of the means of some of the academies is obviously all that is necessary to render such a course of instruction of inestimable value to the common schools of the state. In the neighbourhood of the St. Lawrence academy, the school districts are almost entirely supplied with teachers educated at that institution; and so beneficial has been the effect of introducing into the schools a better class of instructors, and more efficient plans of instruction, that the compensation of teachers is already, on an average, from thirty to forty dollars per annum more than it was before the academy had established a department for training them. The influence of these measures upon the public opinion of a small section of the country furnishes the strongest ground of assurance that it is necessary only to extend them in order to produce the same results on a more extensive scale.

It may not be improper to remark that the question of creating separate seminaries for the education of teachers has been repeatedly before the Legislature, but after full examination it was deemed more advantageous to engraft upon the existing academies departments of instruction for the purpose.

This may now be considered the settled policy of the State, and it will therefore be necessary only to inquire in what manner it can best be carried out to its results.

The Act of the 2nd May, 1834, authorises the Regents of the University to distribute the excess of the annual revenue

of the Literature fund, or portions of it, over the sum of twelve thousand dollars, "if they shall deem it expedient, to the academies subject to their visitation, or a portion of them" to be expended in educating teachers of common schools; & it is made the duty of the trustees of academies to which any distribution of money shall be made, to apply it to the purpose specified "in such manner and under such regulations as said Regents shall prescribe."

The Regents are therefore entrusted with an unlimited control over such portions of the excess of the revenue of the Literature fund as they may think proper to appropriate to the purposes of the law last quoted; and as this is the first instance in which the contributions of the State to this great object have been accompanied with such a delegation of authority as is necessary to ensure its execution, it appears to the committee that a most important and delicate duty is devolved on them. The first step towards the execution of the plan adopted by the Legislature for the education of common school teachers is now to be taken. We are to lay the foundations of a system which may become an essential part of our plan of common school instruction, and which if properly organized may be the means of remedying existing deficiencies and elevating the standard of education to a grade in some degree commensurate with the high responsibilities which the constitution of this State has cast upon its citizens as incidents of the condition of citizenship. If we are successful, the foundations which will now be laid may hereafter be made to sustain a system adequate to the wants of all the common schools in the State. The point therefore which of all others the committee deem it indispensable to secure, is *efficiency in the departments to be created*. The funds at the disposal of the Regents being limited in amount, the aim of the committee has been to devise such measures as on a limited scale would be most efficient. The sum in the treasury applicable to the object expressed in the resolution is ten thousand and forty dollars and seventy-six cents; and the annual excess of the revenue of the Literature Fund, after distributing twelve thousand dollars to the academies, as required by the Act of the 22nd April, 1834, will amount to about three thousand five hundred dollars. The sum first mentioned is now applicable to the establishment of departments of instruction for common school teachers in the existing academies; but it is obviously too small to admit of a general distribution among them; and if it were adequate to the establishment of a department in each, the annual surplus of revenue applicable to the support of those departments would be too small, when divided among so great a number, to be of any practical utility. It has appeared indispensable to the

committee therefore that the academies selected for the purpose should be limited in number. If departments can be established in which even a small number of teachers can be well prepared for the business of instruction, the good effects which would result from the improvements they would introduce into the common schools, would be likely to become so manifest as to lead to more enlarged provisions for the purpose of extending the benefits of the system. The committee therefore, as they have already observed, deem it of the utmost importance that the department to be organized should be put on such a footing as to ensure efficiency in the extent of the means at the disposal of the Regents: that the end proposed should be to prepare a limited number of well educated teachers, rather than a large number with inferior qualifications. This end must necessarily be attained by selecting for the purpose a limited number of academies. At the same time the public convenience would demand that the number should not be too limited, but that one should be within the reach of every county in the State: although it is manifest that the efficiency of the departments will be in the ratio of the sum expended on their organization, and the amount annually contributed to their support. The least number which could perhaps be selected consistently with the general convenience, would be eight, or one in each Senate District; and the committee are of opinion that eight might be maintained without putting at hazard the great object of rendering them equal to the preparation of well instructed and competent teachers.

The committee are aware that the establishment of these departments on the most favorable footing will not remove every difficulty; that there are others inherent in our system of common school instruction which may not be so easily obviated. The inhabitants of school districts have, through the trustees who are elected by their suffrages, the selection of their teacher and the regulation of his wages; and if the state were to prepare a sufficient number of teachers to supply all the districts, there would be no absolute certainty that they would find employment. There would be no probability that they would find, after devoting the best part of their lives to the business of teaching, a provision for them in their old age.

With regard to the first difficulty referred to, it may be safely calculated that the people will, when the good effects of improved modes of teaching are brought directly under their observation, make more liberal contributions to the support of competent teachers.

With regard to the second, there is good reason to doubt, so far as the public is concerned, whether in the end a provision of law which holds out to any class of men the assurance that

they will at all events be employed or supported for life, would be salutary in its effects. The greatest stimulus to improvement is unquestionably the necessity of arduous and unceasing exertion. Places of trust in which the incumbents are permanent, are not, as a general rule, those which are best administered. The efforts of the incumbents are most likely to be fresh and vigorous when they are in danger of being displaced by other individuals of superior qualifications, and when the tenure of office is made to depend on the ability with which its duties are discharged. If therefore the compensation of teachers were equal to that of other employments, the public end would probably be as well answered as by securing to them an unfailling provision for life.

It would be extremely difficult, even if it were desirable under our institutions, to make the system of public instruction compulsory by subjecting it wholly to the regulation of the government; and it must be admitted that this is the feature of the Prussian system from which it derives its principal efficiency. The occupation of teachers must therefore necessarily be with us somewhat less certain; and it will require stronger persuasives to induce individuals of competent abilities to enter into and pursue it as a permanent vocation. This is an inconvenience for which there is not perhaps a perfect remedy, although it is conceived that it may be in a great degree obviated by the adoption of measures which will secure to them a better compensation for their services.

Much may undoubtedly be done by providing for the education of a certain number of individuals, and by sending them abroad among the common schools to raise, by the exhibition of the improved methods which they have gained, the standard of education to the level of their own superiority over the great mass of common school teachers. In this manner the inhabitants of school districts may, and doubtless will, in most cases, be led to make more enlarged and permanent provision for those to whom the instruction of their children is entrusted; and to the adequacy of these provisions the standard of education will acquire and maintain a uniform and certain relation.

The committee then would recommend that one academy in each senate district be selected for the purpose in view, and that the selection be made from those which from their endowments and literary character are most capable of accomplishing it. The object to be attained is public, and the interest of one academy or another cannot properly be taken into consideration with a view to influence the choice which may be made from among them.

Should this recommendation be adopted by the Regents it will remain only to consider :—

1st. On what principle the funds applicable to the establishment or organization of the departments shall be apportioned to the academies which may be selected for the purpose.

2nd. On what principle and to what extent the annual excess of the revenue of the Literature Fund applicable to the support of the departments shall be apportioned to the academies in which they may be established.

3rd. What shall be the organization of the departments.

1st. As to the course (or subjects) of study.

2nd. As to the duration of the course.

3rd. As to the necessary books apparatus ;—and

4th. What evidence of qualification to teach shall be given to the individuals who may be trained in the departments.

These subjects will now be considered in the order in which they are stated.

1st. On what principle the funds applicable to the establishment or organization of the departments shall be apportioned to the academies which may be selected for the purpose.

As a general remark it may be observed in this case as it has been already said in relation to the selection of the academies, that the object in view is public, and that the only legitimate consideration is in what manner it can best be attained. Under this view of the subject no embarrassment can arise as to the question of allowing the academies which may be selected to participate in ratio of their respective wants, in the funds to be applied. The departments should all be placed in their organization on the same footing ; they should have the same apparatus, and be provided in all respects with equal facilities for commencing the contemplated course of instruction. It may, and doubtless will, happen that some of the academies will be found in better condition than others for commencing such a course, and to render the departments equally efficient it may be necessary to apportion the funds applicable to their establishment in unequal sums among the academies selected. It will therefore be advisable, after fixing upon the apparatus, maps, &c. which may be required, to ascertain how far the academies are provided with them, and to distribute the funds with reference to the deficiencies which may be found to exist.

The funds now in the treasury applicable to the object amount to \$10,040 76 ; but of this sum the committee are of opinion that not more than \$4000 should be applied to the establishment of the departments. The sum of \$500 for each will, it is believed be adequate to the object in most cases ; and as some of the academies may not require so large an amount, a surplus may remain and be applied to deficiencies

in others or carried to the fund applicable to the annual support of the departments.

If the sum of \$4000 only be appropriated to the establishment of the departments, a surplus of about \$6000 will be left for future uses ; and for reasons which will be hereafter explained, it may be important to keep on hand an annual surplus to meet any deficiency in the revenue of the Literature Fund in succeeding years.

2nd. On what principle and to what extent the annual excess of the revenue of the Literature Fund applicable to the support of the departments shall be apportioned to the academies in which they may be established.

If the departments are to be maintained at all, it is necessary that there should be apportioned annually to each of the academies in which they shall be established, in addition to the amount to which these academies will be entitled under the general annual apportionment, a sum as nearly adequate as possible to the support of a competent instructor. The largest sum which can be regularly apportioned to each is four hundred dollars : and it is conceived that each of the academies referred to should receive that sum annually, without reference to the number of pupils in training.

With such a permanent provision the object of the academies will be to render the departments efficient, rather than to secure the greatest possible number of pupils. The rule suggested ought not to be carried to an extreme ; and if in the course of time any academy should be found, without good cause, to have failed in promoting the object in view to a reasonable extent, another should be selected and substituted for it, so that the public munificence may not be expended in vain. If after appropriating to each of the academies the sum above mentioned, a further sum could in any year be safely apportioned to them, the most equitable rule would seem to be to distribute it in proportion to the whole number of pupils in training for common school teachers, and to the aggregate length of time in such year during which they shall have been so trained according to the prescribed plan. It is on a similar principle that the greater part of the revenue of the Literature Fund is now distributed under the general law : and after securing a proper degree of efficiency in the departments to be created, there can be no reason to apprehend inconvenience from stimulating the efforts of those who have the direction of the academies, to augment the number of their pupils, and thus to extend as widely as possible the benefits of the system.

The proposed sum to be apportioned annually as above suggested for the support of instructors in the eight departments is three thousand two hundred dollars ; and this is about

as much as can be regularly applied to the object. The capital of the Literature Fund amounts to \$262,573 10; and the annual income will not fall short of \$15,500. Of the last mentioned sum \$12,000 must be apportioned to all the academies subject to the visitation of the Regents pursuant to the Act of 22nd April, 1834, to be expended under the direction of the trustees towards paying the salaries of tutors.

Only \$3,500 will therefore remain to be applied annually to the support of the departments for the instruction of common school teachers.

It is true that there will be on hand, after applying \$4000 to the organization of those departments, about \$6000 applicable to their support. But it is to be considered that a large portion of the capital of the Literature Fund consists of bonds and mortgages on which the interest is not always regularly paid, and it is desirable to keep in the treasury a surplus of a few thousand dollars, to meet in future years any deficiency which may grow out of such irregular payment of interest, for it is of the greatest importance that the academies in which the departments are established should never be disappointed in the anticipated annual contribution to the support of the instructors of those departments. By the arrangement suggested the contribution will be rendered certain, and should it be deemed safe at any future time to distribute a portion of the surplus on hand, after paying out three thousand two hundred dollars for the support of instructors, such distribution might be made on the principle before suggested, and the amount so distributed applied to the purchase of books, or to such other objects as the Regents might designate.

It is also to be observed that under the act of 22d April 1834 applications may be made from other academies for a portion of the excess of the revenue of the fund, for the purchase of philosophical and chemical apparatus &c. And although the Regents have by that act a discretion as to making any application of such excess to the object referred to, it may be desirable in some cases to have funds at command for the purpose. For this reason also it is important that the whole surplus on hand should not be expended.

Brd. What shall be the organization of the departments.

I. As to the course (or subjects) of Study.

In determining the course of study, the committee have thought it proper to designate as subjects to be taught all which they deem indispensable to be known by a first rate teacher of a common school.

In fixing a standard of requirement in any pursuit, it is always desirable to raise it as high as possible; for the qualifications of those who follow it will incline to range below and

not above the prescribed standard. In this case as the principal object is to influence public opinion by exhibiting the advantages of that practical skill which may be gained by proper training, care should be taken that those who are relied on to exert the influence referred to should be made fully adequate to the task.

In select schools in our cities and large schools, qualifications of a still higher grade than those in contemplation for common school teachers, may be required: but as it is not intended with regard to the latter to dispense with any essential branch, so it is not intended to exact any thing which is not indispensable. If the subjects which they will now proceed to state in their proper order, be taught in such a manner and to such an extent as to be thoroughly understood by the pupils, the committee feel confident that the course will be found equal to the object to be obtained.

It is proper to premise however that no individual should be admitted to the teacher's department until he shall have passed such an examination as is required by the following extract from the ordinance of the Regents of the University to entitle students to be considered scholars in the higher branches of English Education:

"No students in any such academy shall be considered scholars in the higher branches of English education within the meaning of this ordinance, until they shall, on examination duly made, be found to have attained to such proficiency in the arts of reading and writing, and to have acquired such knowledge of the elementary rules or operations of arithmetic, commonly called notation, addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, as well in their compound as in their simple forms, and as well in vulgar and decimal fractions as in whole numbers, together with such knowledge of the parts of arithmetic commonly called reduction, practice, the single rule of three direct, and simple interest, as is usually acquired in the medium or average grade of common schools in this State, and until they shall also on such examination be found to have studied so much of English grammar as to be able to parse correctly any common prose sentence in the English language and to render into good English the common examples of bad grammar given in Murray's or some other like grammatical exercises, and shall also have studied in the ordinary way some book or treatise in geography equal in extent to the duodecimo edition of Moore's, Cumming's, Woodbridge's, or Willett's geography, as now in ordinary use."

SUBJECTS OF STUDY.

1. The English language.
2. Writing and drawing.
3. Arithmetic, mental and written: and book-keeping.
4. Geography and general history combined.

5. The history of the United States.
6. Geometry, Trigonometry, Mensuration and Surveying.
7. Natural Philosophy and the Elements of Astronomy.
8. Chemistry and Mineralogy.
9. The Constitution of the United States and Constitution of the State of New York.
10. Select parts of the revised Statutes, and the duties of public officers.
11. Moral and intellectual philosophy.
12. The principles of teaching.

These subjects are not intended to exclude others should the academies think proper to introduce them. The Regents should however, insist that the foregoing be thoroughly studied, and that they be not allowed to give way in any degree to others ; nor should any others be required in order to entitle the pupils to the prescribed evidence of qualification.

The committee will now proceed to state some of the most important suggestions which occur to them in relation to the several subjects of study enumerated ; not for the purpose of pointing out in every case the whole extent to which the course is expected to be carried, but to designate certain particulars which they deem most worthy of attention.

The English language.—This branch constitutes the most extensive and perhaps the most important field of instruction for a teacher. Unless the pupil is thoroughly master of his own language, he cannot be a competent instructor. The utmost pains should therefore be taken to give him an accurate knowledge of it ; and the proper process of instruction is that which it will be his business to employ in giving instruction to others.

He should be made familiar with the best methods of teaching the alphabet and the steps by which children can be conducted with the greatest facility through the first lessons which they receive. Rules for spelling should also be learned, and their application shewn, particularly in the orthography of compound and derivative words, the plurals of nouns, the inflexions of verbs and the comparison of adjectives ; and in these exercises black boards or slates should be used, so that the eye as well as the ear may be made instrumental to the correction of errors.

In reading, the lessons should embrace a just enunciation of sounds as well as words, and a careful regard to distinctness of pronunciation, as well as a proper fulness and modulation of the voice. A clear and correct enunciation is of the highest importance to a teacher whose defects are almost certain to be communicated to his pupils ; and it is therefore indispensable that reading with criticisms in orthoepy, accent, emphasis, cadence and punctuation, should constitute a part of the exercises in this branch of study.

The pupil should not only be practised in reading the English language with accuracy and distinctness, but he should be taught to write it correctly. He should be made thoroughly acquainted with its structure and its idiomatic peculiarities. In addition to the ordinary routine of parsing, the principles of universal grammar should be critically discussed, the structure and philosophy of language, should be made the subject of a minute investigation, the offices which are performed by the different words of a sentence, and the rules by which their relations to each other are governed, should be explained until the whole subject is thoroughly understood.

Original composition, and declamation from the writings of chaste authors, are also an essential part of the course: the first for the purpose of facilitating a correct understanding of the laws of language and the acquisition of a correct style, and the second for the purpose of cultivating a distinct articulation as well as a refined taste. In both, the utmost care should be taken to select subjects on a level with the capacity of the pupil, so that his interest may be kept alive and the mind not tasked beyond its powers; and he should be perpetually cautioned against the error of an affected or artificial manner. Nature is always simple, and for that reason always effective.

In the Kinderhook Academy, in which a department for the education of teachers has been recently introduced, a complete course of instruction in the English language has been adopted, embracing the following details:

1. Orthography. Sounds of Letters. Rules for spelling. Spelling Words of doubtful or various orthography.

2. Pronunciation.

3. Etymology. Prefixes. Terminations. Derivations & definitions. Synonymes. Inflexions.

4. Syntax.

5. Prosody, in all its parts.

6. Punctuation. Use of Capitals. Abbreviations.

7. Reading.

8. Composition. Weekly exercises—topics selected with reference to the business of teaching.

9. Extemporaneous speaking—subjects connected with the business of teaching.

10. Rhetoric. So much of Blair's rhetoric (Mills' edition) as treats of language.

11. History of the language as contained in Johnson's and Walker's prefaces to their large dictionaries.

Although the committee have not in the course of study designated Rhetoric as a distant branch, they consider it advisable that all the academies in which departments are established should introduce so much as is contained in the above synopsis of the course in the Kinderhook Academy.

Writing and drawing.—Every pupil must be able, before he leaves the institution to write a good hand. For this pur-

pose he should be made to practice from the beginning of the course, under the personal direction of the tutors, with the best writing materials, and with proper attention to the positions of the body, arm and hand.

For beginners, slates may be used with great advantage, as suggested in Taylor's District School.

Much may be gained by reducing to writing parts of the prescribed course, if done with attention to the manner in which it is executed: but in all these exercises the tutors should take care to check any appearance of negligence or haste. By a careful attention from the outset to the correct formation of the letters, and to those circumstances which must concur to enable one to write with freedom, a good style of writing may be acquired without the least difficulty; but it will be almost a hopeless attempt if bad habits are contracted before the hand writing is completely formed.

Drawing is only expected to be taught so far as it may be necessary for the purpose of mapping. In learning geography the pupils should be required to delineate on the black board the outlines of the general divisions of the earth, the different countries, oceans, rivers, &c., and they should afterwards be practised in similar delineations, executed with care, on paper. In geometry, trigonometry, mensuration, and surveying, linear drawing will be indispensable, and the tutors should study to convert the exercises to the best use.

Arithmetic.—In this branch the pupil must be thoroughly instructed in the four ground rules of arithmetic, as well in their compound as in their simple forms, and as well in vulgar & in decimal fraction as in whole numbers; the single rule of three together with reduction, practice, interest, fellowship, barter, &c. so that the course shall be at least equal in extent to that contained in Daboll's arithmetic. In all the operations performed by the pupils black boards should be used for demonstrations and illustrations, and every lesson should be explained until the pupil comprehends it thoroughly. In nothing is the dependence of one step on another so complete as in the science of numbers; and if the pupil leaves behind him any thing which he does not distinctly understand, his progress must always be difficult, and the result of his calculations uncertain. In facilitating a clear perception of abstract numbers and quantities, visible illustrations should be liberally employed. Mental arithmetic may also be advantageously resorted to, and indeed may be deemed indispensable as a discipline to the mind. To all these exercises a practical direction should as far as possible be given by selecting as subjects for practice those familiar operations of business with which the pupils must be conversant in after life. Thus the mind may be strengthened by the same process which is storing it with useful information.

A knowledge of arithmetic enters into so many of the common operations of life that it is not only an essential part of the most ordinary education, but it should be so thorough that an application of the rules of the science may be made with ease and certainty. As a mental discipline also the study is of great value; and it should be so conducted as to secure all the benefits which it is capable of producing. The aim should be to make it an exercise of the reasoning faculty, and not, as it has usually been, a mere exertion of memory. A facility in performing the operations of arithmetic may be acquired without a distinct understanding of its principles; but to render sure and easy an advance into the branches of mathematics, for which it is a necessary preparation, a clear and familiar knowledge of principles is indispensable.

Book-Keeping.—A simple course of Book-keeping should be taught in every common school, and it is therefore an essential part of the course of instruction for a teacher.

The method pursued in the St. Lawrence Academy is perhaps as concise and as likely to be successful as any that could be devised. The system contained in the first part of Preston's Book-keeping is taken as a guide. "The pupil is first taught to rule his book, and is then required to carry his slate to the recitation room ruled in the same manner. For several of the first lessons examples of accounts are taken where the articles delivered are charged directly in the individual's account. The teacher then reads the several charges, which the scholar copies on his slate, and the scholar is required, as an exercise in writing, to transfer the account to his book. The teacher then proceeds with the charges in the short specimen of day-book entries, giving as many at one lesson as the scholar will be able to transfer with care in the allotted time to his day-book. When the several charges are copied into the scholar's day-book, he is required to post his book."

In this manner a sufficient knowledge of book-keeping for ordinary purposes may be readily acquired, and the student may improve as much in penmanship as though he had passed his whole time in writing after a copy.

Geography and General History.—Geography, to be profitably studied, must be continually explained by maps and the globe. Neither the artificial nor the natural divisions of the earth, nor the proportions which its several parts bear to each other, and to its whole surface, can be readily comprehended without having recourse to visible demonstrations. To young pupils there is a difficulty, even with the aid of maps and globes, in communicating a distinct conception of the positive or relative magnitude of different countries, or the remoteness of different places from each other. Much depends on minute and patient explanation, especially in that part of geography which treats of the physical divisions of

the earth, including continents, peninsulas. islands, oceans, lakes, rivers, mountains, &c.

Physical geography, or that part of the description of the earth, which treats of its natural features, is of great interest and importance; the more so as with it are necessarily interwoven matters which in strictness belong to the department of astronomy. The figure and motions of the earth; the causes of the variation in the length of the days; the seasons; the principles upon which the tropics and polar circles are drawn at their respective distances from the equator; the general features of the earth's surface, embracing a knowledge of the influence of elevation above the sea upon temperature, climate, productions, &c.; a description of volcanoes and earthquakes; the various theories relative to the causes of eruptions and shocks; the atmosphere, winds and their agency in the distribution of heat and moisture, embracing the subject of rain, fogs, dew, hail, &c.; the theories relative to tides; a description of the most remarkable currents in the ocean; and all those natural causes by which the condition of the various parts of the earth are influenced, should be briefly, but clearly and carefully explained.

In this branch will also be included a general knowledge of the geological structure of particular regions and their most remarkable productions, animal, mineral and vegetable. In the St. Lawrence academy the whole subject of physical geography is systematically and critically discussed; commencing with the "history of the science and the adaptation of the objects it embraces to awaken interest by their endless diversity," and running through the details of the science in a complete course of seventeen lectures.

With a description of the different countries of the earth, some account of their inhabitants, forms of government and religion, and their general statistics, must also be united. Nor will this suffice to render the view complete. We must not be content to see the earth and its possessors as they are. We must look also at what they have been, through the lights of history. A general idea of the progress of each country from infancy to age, from weakness to power, or from dominion to servitude, should be acquired; their most distinguished men, and some of the most remarkable events which have accompanied their growth and decay, should be pointed out, and a cursory survey of the whole earth in its relations both of time and space, should be taken by the pupil. The undertaking may seem arduous, but it may be executed under judicious direction with much less time than would be supposed necessary to accomplish it. The course of history should be equal to that contained in Tytler's Elements of General History, ancient and modern.

The course in geography should not be less in extent than that contained in Woodbridge and Willard, the volume in general use in the common schools. The course should be accompanied with copious illustrations by lectures and by reference to larger works, so that the pupils may be made familiar with the sources from which they may be able to enrich the instruction they themselves give when may they become instructors.

History of the United States.—The History of the United States is so essential, that it may justly be treated as a distinct branch of study. In this a mere outline is not sufficient. The pupil should understand, in all its details, the history of his own country. He should begin with its discovery, and first settlement, and trace it through the various stages of its colonial dependence to its emancipation from the control of the mother country. In the character of the men who stood foremost in the contest for independence, the measures of provocation by which they were roused to resistance, the trials through which they passed, the reverses which they sustained, the triumphs which they achieved, and the great political principles which were vindicated by them, these are lessons of instruction not inferior in value to any which can be drawn from the history of any other age or people; and if the mind of every youth can be made familiar with them, and his feelings imbued with the moral which they contain, no better security can be provided against the degeneracy of that unconquerable spirit in which the foundations of our freedom were laid.

Geometry, Trigonometry, Mensuration, and Surveying.—The committee regret that they cannot refer to any single work which contains such a course on all these subjects as they deem necessary. The works on each separate subject are in general too extensive for the purpose in view. The course should be altogether practical in its character, and should be divested of every thing superfluous. The principles of geometry and trigonometry, should be so thoroughly understood that their application may be made with facility. The pupils should be able to measure solids as well as surfaces with ease; and they should be made as well acquainted with the rules of surveying and the instruments used for the purpose as to be able to ascertain heights and distances, and determine the contents of a given piece of land with readiness and precision.

As the Committee are unable to refer to any modern work precisely adapted to the course required on all these subjects, they propose to leave the extent of the course at present to the academies, with the single remark that each pupil should have such an acquaintance with each of the specified subjects as is necessary for every practical purpose.

Natural Philosophy and the Elements of Astronomy.—

The course in natural philosophy will embrace a clear understanding of the several properties of bodies, gravitation, the laws of motion, simple and compound, the mechanical powers, the mechanical properties of fluids, the mechanical properties of air, the transmission of sound, and optics. Each academy should be furnished with a complete philosophical apparatus, and all the subjects should be taught with full illustrations. A practical direction should, as far as possible, be given to the science, by teaching the proper application of its laws to useful purposes. It is from this course that those who intend to devote themselves to mechanical pursuits may reap the greatest benefits; and it is of the utmost importance to introduce it into the common schools. The first step towards the accomplishment of this object is to prepare instructors competent to teach it; and it is for this reason that it should constitute a particular object of attention.

In connection with natural philosophy there should be a brief course of instruction in the principles of astronomy. The nature and causes of the earth's motions, the planets and their motions, their size and positions in relation to the earth and the sun, their satellites, the cause of eclipses, the variations of the seasons, the length of the days, the causes of heat in summer, &c., should all be made familiar to the pupils. Each academy should be furnished with an orrery, a moveable planisphere, a tide-dial, and a set of globes: and nothing which is capable of being illustrated by apparatus should be taught without illustration.

The same apparatus may be employed for the illustration of subjects connected with physical geography, between which and that part of astronomy which treats of the earth's motions and the effects consequent upon them, there is a very close connexion. In pointing out some of the subjects which belong to the department of physical geography, some of the foregoing have been already enumerated, as the motions of the earth, the seasons, tides, &c. It is indeed not always easy, nor is it always necessary, to assign to each science its exact boundaries: so far as instruction is concerned, the separation of one from another is of no practical importance, so that all the subjects are clearly understood.

Chemistry and Mineralogy.—The course in mineralogy and chemistry is not expected to be carried far. It is intended that each academy shall have a small cabinet of minerals and the pupils should be able to distinguish the different specimens which should be well characterised, and to understand clearly their composition and distinctive properties. Chemistry should be taught in such a manner as to elucidate these distinctions in the mineral kingdom, and to

give a correct knowledge of the properties of the various bodies and substances which are in most common use; and its application to agriculture and the useful arts should be made a prominent subject of instruction. Mineralogy is usually a preliminary of the science of geology; but it is not expected that the latter will constitute a subject of study, excepting so far as is connected with physical geography, which will necessarily embrace some account of the structure of the earth, with a description of the principal classes of rocks and the mineral and metallic substances with which they are found united. One of the most salutary effects of combining with elementary education some knowledge of the foregoing subjects is to guard against the impositions so frequently practised upon the ignorance of the uninformed in the discovery of some unknown and often worthless substance to which an imaginary value is assigned. It is exceedingly desirable to spread correct notions concerning lime-stone, gypsum, and coal, and the ores of iron, lead, copper, &c. The modes of verifying their composition should be made familiar; and it should be understood in what proportions quantity should be combined with quality in order to reward labor.

Those experiments in chemistry, which are merely calculated to produce brilliant effects without subserving a useful purpose should be laid aside, and others of a more practical value substituted for them. The course will necessarily be limited, and it should possess in utility what it lacks in extent.

In the foregoing branches there may, and doubtless will be felt the want of proper class books, those in general use not being so directly adapted as is desirable to teach the application of the sciences to practical purposes. The committee trust that the organization of the departments may lead to the preparation of suitable books on all the subjects in respect to which they may be wanting; and indeed they are encouraged to believe that a work on chemistry will appear at no distant time, the whole aim of which will be to shew the application of the science to the useful arts. Until these deficiencies shall be supplied, the Regents must trust to the academies to extract from the existing works all which they may deem best suited to the objects of the prescribed course. Nothing perhaps can be better calculated to accomplish these objects than the preparation of lectures on the different subjects of study, taking care to illustrate every thing which is taught by demonstrations and experiments. So far as instruction is carried it should be thorough and clearly understood.

The constitution of the United States, and the constitution of the State of New York.—Every citizen, in order to exercise discreetly and intelligently the right of suffrage, upon which questions of constitutional power are frequently dependent, must understand the provisions of the constitution of the United States and the constitution of his own State; and, there cannot perhaps be a better mode of attaining the object than to require each pupil to make a brief analysis of both. With regard to the constitution of the United States, he should be required to specify the qualifications and disabilities of the members of the Senate and House of Representatives, the rights and privileges of each house, the powers of congress, the powers prohibited and reserved to the states, the limitations of the legislative, judicial, and executive authorities, and the manner in which the various officers of the government are respectively chosen or appointed. In short, all the provisions of the original instrument and of the successive amendments which have by virtue of the proper ratifications by the states, become a part of it, should be thoroughly understood by the pupil. In like manner he should know the qualifications of the various officers of government in his own state, the several divisions of authority provided by the constitution; the organization of the legislative, judicial, and executive departments; the powers respectfully allotted to them; the rights of the citizens; and for the purpose of impressing strongly on the mind these fundamental principles and provisions of law which every citizen owes it to the public and himself to understand, the pupils should be required to make an analysis of the constitution of New York, which should be carefully examined by the instructor. In pointing out the principal and most important provisions of both instruments so far as they confer power or restrain its exercise, the reasons on which the grant in the one case or the prohibition in the other is founded, should be clearly explained. Questions of disputed right growing out of the provisions of either instrument had better be passed by; but if they are made a subject of comment, the arguments on both sides should be fairly stated. Schools for popular instruction depart from the end of their institution when they are made subservient to the propagation of particular tenets on any subject which is open to a diversity of opinion. In every matter which enters of necessity into the proposed plan, it should be the aim of the instructor to furnish his pupils with all the materials for forming unprejudiced opinions, but to leave their minds free from all bias.

Select parts of the Revised Statutes, and duties of public officers.—A compendious work on the duties of public officers was published a few years since at Utica, and it embraces all

that the committee deem requisite under this head. It is hardly necessary to add that under a form of government which throws open to all its citizens the avenues to political power, it is important that all should have, in early life, a general knowledge of the duties which they may be called on to discharge, or over the faithful performance of which by others it will be their province, in common with their fellow citizens, to exercise a constant supervision.

Appended to the work referred to, there is a short treatise on the domestic relations which may properly be considered as an exposition of the eighth chapter of the second part of the Revised statutes, and is all that is necessary on this particular subject. There is also an article on wills, and another on executors and administrators. It is to be regretted that a work containing the most important principles of civil and criminal jurisprudence, cannot now be referred to as proper to be used for the proposed course. Until such a one shall be prepared, the principals of the academies should be charged with the duty of extracting from the Revised statutes such portions as will shew the particulars necessary to give validity to conveyances, the time limited for commencing suits, the rules relative to fraudulent conveyances and contracts as to goods, chattels, and things in action, and the offences to which penalties are annexed, as contained in chapter 3rd of the 2nd part; Title 2nd chapter 7 of the 2nd part; chapter 4th of the 3rd part, and chapter 1st of the 4th part. The aim should be to extract only such portions of these chapters as contain some essential fact or principle without which the responsibilities or the rights of the parties interested in the subject matter would not clearly apprehend.

Moral and intellectual Philosophy.—The laws which should govern all men, both with respect to the investigation of truth and to the discharge of the duties resulting from the relations which they bear to each other and to the author of their existence should be familiar to every teacher, particularly as his own moral character is subject to a periodical examination by the inspectors. A knowledge of these laws is indispensable to those whose province it will be to watch over the developement of the moral and intellectual faculties, and direct them to their proper objects. The study itself is not only valuable as a discipline to the mind, but as a means of acquiring an influence over the minds of others. Although a facility for distinguishing the shades of character which exist in those with whom we are brought into contact, and thus ascertaining how far and how readily they are likely to be actuated by particular motives, can only be gained by continued experience; our progress may be aided by attending to the principles which enter into the mental constitution of all mankind.

Dr. Abercrombie's treatise entitled "Inquiries concerning the intellectual powers and the investigation of truth," is well adapted to give a clear and correct conception of that part of the subject; and the five firsts books of Paley's "Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy," will suffice for the other part of the course. In general, the subject matter of the latter is more practical, and better calculated to delineate with accuracy "the offices of domestic life" than most of the popular treatises on the same subject; and it has an advantage over them in giving an explanation of some of the obligations resulting from the rights of property, and from contracts with regard to its transfer and use.

The political part of the work, or the sixth book, should not, for various reasons, be made a part of the course. Of these, it is perhaps only necessary to assign a single one,—the obvious objection of making the course too extended.

The family library edition of the former, and several school editions of the latter, have each appended to them a series of questions upon their respective contents for the examination of students.

The principles of teaching.—In this branch instruction must be thorough and copious. It must not be confined simply to the art of teaching, or the most successful methods of communicating knowledge, but it must embrace also those rules of moral government which are as necessary for the regulation of the conduct of the teacher as for the formation of the character of those who are committed to his care.

Although this branch of instruction is mentioned last in the order of subjects, it should in fact run through the whole course. All the other branches should be so taught as to be subservient to the great object of creating a facility for communicating instruction to others. In teaching the principles of the art it would be desirable to make Hall's Lectures on school keeping a text book; and Abott's Teacher, Taylor's District school, and the Annals of Education, should be used as reading books for the double purpose of improvement in reading the English language, and for becoming familiar with the most improved modes of instruction and the best rules of school government. From the Annals select parts only would be chosen for the purpose.

The pupils in the departments should be practised in all that can devolve on a teacher. It is of the first importance that they should be made, each in turn, to conduct some part of the recitations, to prepare proper questions on the particular subject of study, and to illustrate it by explanations for the purpose of improving their colloquial powers, and thus giving them a facility for explaining whatever they may be required to teach in the future office of instructor. The

tutor should then go over the whole ground after them, pointing out their errors or defects, and giving them credit for whatever may appear to merit commendation. In this manner the future teacher will readily acquire a facility for communicating instruction, which is one of the highest elements of his art.

In all these exercises the language of the pupils should be watched and criticised, every want of perspicuity pointed out, and a rigid conformity to the true standards of etymology and pronunciation insisted on. At the same time everything artificial or affected in tone or manner should be studiously avoided; and the pupils should be taught that elocution is always effective in proportion as it is natural and unconstrained.

It has been customary in the examination of teachers with a view to determine their qualifications to ascertain only whether they possess a proper knowledge of the subjects in which they are expected to give instruction. But although this is in general the only object of inquiry, it is in fact a very erroneous criterion of their ability to teach. The possession of knowledge does not necessarily carry with it the faculty of communicating knowledge to others. It is for this reason that the best methods of imparting instruction should be made a subject of instruction to those who are preparing themselves for the business of teaching. They should know how to command the attention of their pupils, to communicate the results of their own researches and experience in the manner best calculated to make a lasting impression on the mind, to lead their pupils into the habit of examining for themselves instead of being directed at every step of their progress by their instructor, and thus to observe, investigate, and classify objects, to combine the fruits of their observation, and draw conclusions from the facts which they have obtained. Under such a system of instruction and exercise; the mind cannot fail to gain strength, and to acquire that salutary confidence in the result of its own operations which is the best safeguard against the prevalence of error, and against those impositions which are almost necessarily the fruit of imbibing opinions, without a rigid scrutiny into the nature of the foundations on which they rest.

In carrying into execution the plan of instruction about to be established, it should not be for a moment forgotten by those who are charged with this important task, that the object of education is not merely to amass the greatest possible amount of information, but at the same time to develope and discipline the intellectual and moral faculties. It is in vain that the stores of knowledge are enlarged if the skill to employ them for useful purposes be not also acquired. At every

step the mind should be taught to rely on the exercise of its own powers. The pupils should be required to assign reasons for every position assumed in their various studies, not barely with a view to give them a thorough comprehension of the subject, but for the purpose also of cultivating that habit of critical investigation which is unsatisfied until every part of the subject of inquiry is understood. The result of common school education in most cases is to burden the memory with facts and rules of which the proper practical application is but imperfectly comprehended. This defect is at war with the spirit of the age, which is to probe to its inmost depths every subject of knowledge and to connect the results of our inquiries to useful purposes. Practical usefulness is the great end of intellectual discipline; it should be kept steadily in view by the teacher, and he will soon learn that his lesson when its reason and its object are presented to the mind of his pupil, will arouse an interest which in the absence of this full understanding of the subject, he would have labored in vain to excite.

In the present condition of our common schools much time is lost and labor misapplied by injudicious systems of instruction; they are fields for collecting facts and details rather than for disciplining the faculties. This radical error should be corrected. Pupils should be made to think for themselves instead of treasuring up merely the results of other men's thoughts. The great instrument of reform will be to make demonstration keep pace with knowledge. Nothing should be left unexplained; nor should any thing be allowed to rest on mere authority, excepting where from the nature of the subject, it admits of no other foundation.

Subjects which are susceptible of demonstration must however not be studied to the neglect of those which are not.—First principles, and certain classes of facts, are of such a nature that the mind can only take notice of them as such without being able to assign the reason of their existence.—Separately, they are proper subjects for the attention and memory; but not for the reasoning powers until they are considered in the relations which they bear to others. They are however the materials on which the mind is to be employed. Nor should it be forgotten that there are mental processes depending wholly on an exercise of memory, which constitute a valuable intellectual discipline. In cultivating the reasoning powers the memory should also be strengthened by habitual exertion, and stored with useful facts. The mind cannot be brought into complete exercise without a systematic discipline of all its faculties.

To almost every species of instruction the inductive method may be applied to great advantage. Nature herself

seems to teach that the observation of facts should precede inductions, and that general principles can only be deduced from particular facts. An intelligent instructor will know how to apply the rule and convert it to the most useful purposes.

In determining the proper organization of the departments the committee have fully considered the question whether the studies and recitations should be distinct from the ordinary academic exercises; and although they are disposed to leave this in some degree to the discretion of the academies, yet they are decidedly of the opinion that convenience coincides with good policy, in requiring that pupils who are in a course of training for teachers should be taught in connexion with the other students. So far as mental discipline is concerned both classes of pupils require the same mode of training, and to a certain extent the same studies will be pursued. Whenever the peculiar duties of teachers are the subject of study and examination separate recitations will become necessary; and although an instructor is proposed to be maintained in each of the departments to be organized, this provision should not be deemed to preclude a division of labor, or to devolve on the individual thus supported the task of conducting the pupils in a course of preparation for teaching through all the studies required to be pursued. On the contrary it may be both convenient and profitable to assign recitations in different branches to different teachers, according to their peculiar fitness, and thus bring into the most efficient action the united skill of all. In this respect the Regents must rely on the principal of each academy to make such arrangements as to convert the intellectual force under his control and direction to the best possible use in furthering the great object in view.

The committee cannot forbear to add that the instructors in the academies with which the proposed departments may be connected should labor to impress on the minds of those who may be preparing themselves for the vocation of teaching a deep sense of the responsibility which belongs to it. There is in truth no other in which a conscientious and discreet discharge of its appropriate duties can well produce more beneficial or lasting effects. It is from the conduct and precepts of the teacher that the minds committed to his guidance are destined to receive impressions which may accompany the individuals through life, and give a determining cast to the character. In his demeanor they may read impressive lessons of moderation, forbearance, and self control; from his rules of government they may learn the value of firmness, justice and impartiality; or they may find in exhibitions of petulance, unsteadiness of purpose, and unjust distributions of favor, a license for the indulgence of their own prejudices and passions. Nothing is more vital to the successful government

of the teacher and to the execution of his plans of instruction, than a steady self command. The most certain mode of bringing his own authority into contempt is to shew that he is not his own master. The moral atmosphere of the school room will be pure or impure according to the conduct and character of him who presides over it. On his example will in no inconsiderable degree depend for good or evil the destiny of numbers whose influence will in turn be felt by the political society in the operations of which they are to take an active part. The teacher should be made to feel so sensibly the importance of his position that it may be continually present to his thoughts, and become the guide and rule of his actions. He should bear perpetually in mind that he is the centre of a little system, which, as time advances, is destined to spread itself out and carry with it, for the benefit or injury of all which it reaches, the moral influences imparted by himself.

It is equally important that teachers should become acquainted with their own capabilities and inspired with the feeling that they may by their own industry raise their qualifications to any standard. The discipline of their own faculties should not terminate with the close of their course of preparation. The intervals of teaching may be filled up by studies which will not only be a source of constant improvement in their vocation, but which will elevate their own character, enlarge their stock of moral and intellectual power, and render them better qualified for success in any other pursuit in life. In proportion as their ability is increased will be their chances of procuring prominent situations as teachers with adequate compensation. Their qualifications, and the successful results of their labors, will stand so strongly in contrast with those of ordinary teachers as to create a competition among districts which are desirous of obtaining their services, and thus secure a competent provision for their support.

It must be confessed that there is much in the present prospects of those who intend to devote themselves to the business of teaching, which is calculated to produce indifference and to damp exertion. The vocation does not now ensure constant employment, and therefore is not to be relied on as a certain support; nor does it yield rewards at all adequate to its toils and sacrifices. But it is not improbable that more liberal views will prevail in relation to the remuneration of teachers; and it is certain that the most effectual method of bringing about such a change is a course of conduct and an exhibition of skill on their part which will elevate the character of their vocation, and by making the public more sensible of the value of their services, will secure a proportionate increase of compensation. Teachers should feel that without a deep interest in their occupation they cannot bring into op-

eration the talent required to do themselves justice, and to convince the public of the necessity of a higher standard of education. Time may be necessary to produce upon the public mind the requisite impression ; but there is no reason to doubt the result. If in the mean time they lose through the narrow views of their employers, something of the indemnity to which they are entitled for their labors in a most difficult and responsible sphere of action, let them not superadd to this loss a sacrifice of their own reputation by a careless or imperfect discharge of their duties. Let them resolve to gain in character what they may lose in pecuniary profit ; and let them be assured that if any thing can succeed in obtaining from the public the justice which they seek, it is a course of generous devotion on their part to the great cause of education. If such a course should fail to win from those on whom they are now dependent a corresponding return of benefits, it is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when the value of their labors will be better appreciated, and complete justice awarded to them.

II. *As to the duration of the course.* This is necessarily regulated by the number and extent of the subjects of study. In the Prussian Seminaries, in which the requirements for the teachers of the first grade are about equal in importance to those which the committee have proposed for the departments in question, the term of study is three years ; and they are of the opinion that a shorter period would not be sufficient for a strict compliance with the contemplated course. As has already been observed, the object in view is to prepare teachers of the first grade ; and every other consideration should give way to this. It should be recommended to the trustees of the academies in which the departments may be established, to make the rate of tuition for those who intend in good faith to devote themselves to the business of teaching as low as possible ; and to regulate the terms of instruction in such a manner that the pupils in the teachers' department who are sufficiently advanced may have an opportunity of taking schools during the three winter months. They may by this means earn something to enable them to complete their course of instruction, and at the same time improve themselves by making a practical application of the knowledge which they will have gained during the rest of the year. To accomplish this object it may be necessary to have only two terms per annum of four months each. The pupils must not only be required to comply with the entire course, but they must understand thoroughly every subject of study before they receive a diploma or certificate of qualification. In this respect the Boards from whom the evidences of qualification are to issue must practise the greatest caution.—Their

own and the public interest alike demands it. The system cannot become popular unless it is made equal to its objects. A single individual educated in one of the proposed departments, and going forth to teach with a diploma, but without the requisite moral and intellectual qualifications, would do much to bring the whole system into disrepute. The regents should, therefore insist strongly on the fidelity of the academies to withhold the necessary evidence of qualification to teach from all who are not entirely worthy of it.

The trustees and officers of the academies which may be selected cannot fail to perceive that a most favorable opportunity will be presented to them for elevating the character and extending the reputation of their institutions. Whether they succeed in doing so must depend on the fidelity and zeal with which the prescribed plan of instruction shall be carried into effect. They cannot but perceive also, that if through the want of proper exertions any one of them should fail to give satisfaction, and thus render it incumbent on the regents to transfer the department to some other institution, a duty would devolve on the latter as disagreeable to themselves as it would be prejudicial to the character of the academy, in relation to which its performance would be required.

The committee propose that full reports shall be annually made by the academies with regard to the departments. These reports should contain the name of every person receiving a diploma, and the date on which it was issued, so that a complete register of those who have passed through the prescribed course of training will be on file with the Secretary of the board for any necessary purpose of reference. The reports should also show the condition of the departments as to the number of pupils, the time each has been in training, the books in use, the extent to which each book has been studied, the state of the libraries and apparatus, and in short every thing which is contained in the reports now made to the Regents in relation to other students. They should also exhibit every thing which may be calculated to point out defects and suggest improvements, and they should be accompanied with such observations as may have occurred to the officers of the academies in carrying into execution the prescribed plan. The form of the report need not differ materially from that now used, excepting so far as it may be necessary to embrace new items of information. The form, accompanied with the necessary instructions, would they have supposed, be most properly prepared under the direction of the Secretary of the Regents.

III: *As to the necessary books and apparatus. Books.* Each academy should be furnished with a library well stored with the best authors on the prescribed subjects of study.

The committee propose to leave the selection of the books for further consideration. A list can be made out on consultation with the academies and presented at a future day for the sanction of the Regents. As these books will be wanted for examination and reference, several copies of the same work will be required.

The committee have had under consideration the expediency of designating all the class books which shall be used in the departments to be established, or of leaving them to be selected by the academies: and although they deem it of great importance to reduce the course of study to the greatest possible precision, they have come to the conclusion that it is better at present to adopt the latter course. The principal consideration by which they have been guided, is the belief that the Regents may, by allowing the academies to make the selection in the first instance, and requiring them to state in their annual reports the books which they have used, and their reasons for preferring one author to others in common use, be furnished with the means of making a selection themselves at a future day, should it become necessary, for the purpose of securing entire uniformity.

At the same time they would suggest that it will in general be found most advantageous to use for the instruction of teachers the books from which they will be required to teach in the common schools. Larger and more copious treatises on all the subjects of instruction will, it is true, be necessary for the course of study in the departments: but the principal use of the latter will be for reference, and for the purpose of more full illustrations than are afforded by the smaller works.

Apparatus. The following list includes all the apparatus and maps which the committee deem necessary at present, with the prices annexed, so far as they can be ascertained:—

No. 1.	Orrery.....	\$20 00
	Numeral frame and geometrical solids	2 50
	Globes.....	12 00
	Movable plamisphere.....	1 50
	Tide dial.....	3 00
	Optical apparatus.....	10 00
Box No. 2.	Mechanical powers.....	12 00
Box No. 3.	Hydrostatic apparatus.....	10 00
Box No. 4.	Pneumatic apparatus.....	35 00
Box No. 1.	Chemical apparatus.....	25 00
	100 specimens of mineralogy.....	10 00
	Electrical machine.....	12 00
	Instruments to teach Surveying.....	80 00
	Map of the United States.....	8 00

Map of the State of New York.....	8 00
Atlas.....	5 00
Telescope.....	40 00
Quadrant.....	15 00

\$309 00

The price of the entire apparatus, including maps, for each department, will not much exceed three hundred dollars, so that about two hundred dollars will remain to be appropriated to the purchase of books for each.

The apparatus in contemplation of the committee, and understood to be the best of the kind, is prepared by Brown and Pierce of Boston, and may be procured in the city of New York.

4th. What evidence of qualification to teach shall be given to the individuals who may be trained in the Departments.

In the Prussian and French Seminaries of teachers different grades of qualification are recognized, and the certificates which the pupils receive on completing their course of preparation are framed according to their respective ability to teach. If the departments about to be established were to be adequate to supply with teachers the districts throughout the State, such a distinction might be desirable. But as the number of teachers will necessarily be limited; and as one of the most important effects to be anticipated and desired from the establishment of these departments is to influence public opinion, and by an exhibition of improved methods of teaching, to correct prevailing errors with regard to the necessity of providing such a compensation for teachers as shall be in some degree adequate to the value of their services, all the pupils who are in training should be encouraged to complete the prescribed course of preparation. The only distinction proposed to be taken by the committee for those who have gone through the entire course is between those who are, and those who are not qualified to teach; and they deem it proper to entrust the decision of this question to the principal and trustees of the academies in which the departments may be established. It has been suggested that some evidence of qualification from the Regents of the University would carry with it greater weight. There may be, and doubtless is, some force in the suggestion: but as such evidence of qualification must after all rest upon the representation of the officers of the respective academies, they propose to let it issue from the latter, and purport to be what it must be from the necessity of the case. They have drawn a form for a diploma which is hereunto annexed, marked A., and which, from its terms, can only be given to those who have completed the course of instruction prescribed by the Regents, and have passed a satisfactory examination in all the subjects of study.

The examination should be public, and be made in the presence of the principal and a majority of the trustees of the academy.

The diploma will not of course dispense with the necessity of a certificate from the inspectors of common schools of the town, in order to enable the individual to whom it is given to teach a common school and receive the public money. The existing rule of law in this respect will not be affected. Every individual engaged in instructing a common school must once in each year be examined by the inspectors, and receive a new certificate of qualification. There would be a difficulty in dispensing with this rule, as one of the objects of such a periodical examination is to pass judgment upon the moral character as well as the ability of the individual, who may, by contracting bad habits, become totally unworthy of being entrusted with the education of children. The only advantage therefore which the diploma will give, is the assurance that the individual who holds it has been regularly trained for his vocation.

It may often happen that students will not be disposed or able to go through the whole of the prescribed course of instruction for teachers. In this case the principals of the academies should be at liberty to give them a certificate setting forth the particular studies they have pursued, with such opinion of their moral character and their qualifications to teach the branches which they have studied, as they may be considered entitled to. But this certificate should be merely under the signature of the principal, and not under the seal of the institution; for the committee deem it of the utmost importance that no evidence of qualification should be given which can be mistaken for the diploma received by those who have completed the prescribed course. To avoid all misapprehension, the committee have prepared and herewith annexed a form for such a certificate, marked B.

The committee deem it within the scope of the reference to them to designate for the consideration of the Regents the academies with which the proposed departments may, in their opinion be most advantageously connected. They would therefore respectfully suggest the following, viz.

- 1st District, Erasmus Hall, Kings county.
- 2nd do. Montgomery, Orange county.
- 3rd do. Kinderhook, Columbia county.
- 4th do. St. Lawrence, St. Lawrence county.
- 5th do. Fairfield, Herkimer county.
- 6th do. Oxford, Chenango county.
- 7th do. Canandaigua, Ontario county.
- 8th do. Middlebury, Genesee county.

In making this selection the committee have been guided in the preferences they have given by one of two considera-

tions: 1st. That the value of the philosophical and chemical apparatus and library was superior to that of others in the district; or 2nd, that by reason of their endowments or their peculiar consideration, the course of education in the academies selected would be likely to be least expensive to students. The only instances in which they have departed in any degree from this standard are in the 6th and 7th districts. The Oxford academy has a small amount invested in apparatus, &c. and the Canandaigua Academy is in a large village, where the expense of board might be supposed to be greater than in places of less importance. But each has already a department for the instruction of teachers in full operation; and the endowments of the latter are so ample that the rate of tuition is extremely low, so much so as to compensate for a somewhat higher standard of expense in the item of board. Upon full consideration, they are of opinion that neither of these academies could be advantageously exchanged for others in the districts in which they respectively lie.

Should the funds at the disposal of the Regents be so augmented hereafter as to admit of an additional expenditure for the support of the departments, the committee are of opinion that great benefit might be derived from a course of lectures, accompanied with experiments, on Chemistry and Mineralogy, and natural Philosophy and Astronomy, by an individual who would make it his whole business to lecture on these subjects. The pupils in each department might be prepared by the study of the proper text books so as to be ready at a specified time for the lecturer, who would carry his apparatus with him, and who from his familiar knowledge of the subjects could in a course of lectures of not more than one month in duration in each of the academies, give more practical information than could be gained in the ordinary way in a much longer period. The services of an individual of competent talents might undoubtedly be secured for \$1000 per annum. This sum, with what he would be likely to receive from other students not in training for the business of teaching who might wish to attend the lectures, would cover his expenses and afford him an adequate compensation for the service rendered. The time occupied would not exceed eight months, and the lectures would be given during such portions of the year as to leave the individual employed the entire winter to lecture in other institutions. Thus for the sum of \$1000 per annum the students in the eight departments would be carried through the entire course in the subjects which present the greatest difficulty, from the necessity of being taught by individuals familiar with them and with the use of the apparatus by which they require to be illustrated.

With this object might be combined another not less im-

portant. The individual thus employed by the Regents might be required to examine into the entire condition of the departments, and report to them all the information which may be necessary to enable them to determine whether the prescribed plan is carried into complete and efficient execution.

As the Regents have not now the means of making this addition to the proposed plan, and as it will not be necessary until the departments shall have been organized and put fairly in operation, the committee merely suggested it at this time as a subject worthy of futuro consideration.

In concluding their report the committee beg leave to observe that a matter of so much importance, in which the ground to be occupied is yet untried, many considerations may have escaped their notice which may be disclosed when the proposed plan is put in operation. They do not present it with the confidence that it is perfect, or that experience may not dictate salutary alterations in it, but as the best which, with the lights before them, they have been able after full consideration to devise.

All which is respectfully submitted.

Albany 8th January, 1835.

(A.)

DIPLOMA.

The Regents of the University of the State of New-York having established in this institution a department for the education of common school teachers.

WE, the President of the Board of Trustees, and the Principal, of the _____ Academy, do hereby certify that A. B. of the town of _____ in the county of _____ in the State of _____ has completed the course of instruction and passed a satisfactory examination in all the subjects of study prescribed by the Regents for the department; that he has sustained, while at the institution, a good moral character, and that he is fully qualified to teach a common school of the first grade. In testimony whereof we have hereunto affixed our signatures, together with the seal of the institution at _____ in the county of _____ this _____ day of _____ 18 .

A. B. *President.*

C. D. *Principal.*

(B.)

Certificate to be given to students who have not completed the prescribed course of instruction for teachers.

I, the Principal of the _____ day of _____ 183 .
Academy do hereby certify

that A. B. of the town of _____ in the county of _____ and State of _____ has attended a course of instruction at this institution in the art of teaching; that he has sustained a good moral character; and although he has not completed the course of study prescribed by the Regents of the University for common school teachers, he has studied, and is competent to give instruction in the following subjects, viz :—

A. B. Principal.

P. S.—If the individual is not well qualified to give instruction in all the subjects of study, those which he is competent to teach should be specified.

E X T R A C T S

FROM THE

A N N U A L R E P O R T

OF THE

SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS

IN THE

State of New-York,

FOR THE YEAR 1836.

It appears by the above Report addressed to the Legislature on the 6th of January, 1836 :

1. That there were, on the last day of December, 1834, 10,132 organized school districts in the State, from 9676 of which annual reports have been made to the Commissioners of Common Schools.

2. In all the districts from which reports have been received, schools have been kept during the year 1834—an average period of eight months.

3. The whole number of children over five and under sixteen years of age, residing, on the last day of December, 1834, in the school districts from which reports have been received, was 543,085, and the whole number of children who had attended school during the year 1834 in the same districts was 541,401. It is proper to state that the reports from the school districts do not shew the whole length of time during which each child has attended school. They shew only how long the schools have been kept open, and how many children have received more or less instruction.

4. The number of children attending the common schools compared with the number of districts from which reports have been received gives an average of about 56 children to each district. This is as large a number as can be advantageously attended to by a single teacher. In a few districts two teachers are employed, but these cases are rare, and the average number of children annually instructed by each teacher is at least 50. As the whole number of children are not every day in attendance, the classes will average something less. Upon the whole the number of children in proportion to the number of districts may be considered about what it should be.

5. Under any view of the subject it is reasonable to believe that in the common schools, private schools, and academies, the number of children actually receiving instruction is equal to the whole number between five and sixteen years of age.

6. *Estimates and Expenditures of the School monies.*

By the Reports of the Commissioners of Common Schools it appears that the sum of \$314,749 36 was paid by them to the trustees of school districts in their respective towns in April, 1835. The amount of public money expended by the Trustees in the year 1834 for the payment of the wages of teachers was \$312,181 20, of which sum \$100,000 was received from the Common School Fund, \$193,590 28 was levied by taxation on the property of the inhabitants of the several towns and cities in the State, and \$18,620 92 was derived from the local funds belonging to particular towns.

The amount paid during the same period for teachers' wages, besides the above amount of public money, was \$419,878 69, and exceeds by the sum of \$21,741 65 the amount paid for teachers' wages, besides public money in the year 1833. The whole amount paid for teachers' wages in 1834 was \$732,059 89, excepting a few thousand dollars expended in the city of New York for school houses, by the public school society.

The whole amount therefore expended for teachers' wages in 1834 exceeds the amount so expended in 1833 by the sum of \$17,768 92.

7. The actual expense of the common school system may be stated as follows: In this estimate the three first items are estimated on the basis assumed in former reports. The others are drawn from the reports of the Commissioners of Common Schools:

Interest at 6 per cent on \$2,165,200, invested in school houses.....	\$129,912 00
Annual expense of books for 541,401 scholars at 50 cents each.....	270,700 00
Fuel for 9,826 school houses at \$10 each.....	98,260 00
Public money as appears by the returns.....	312,181 20
Amount paid for teachers wages, beside public money as appears by the returns.....	419,878 69
Total.....	\$1,230,931 89

In this amount the expense of repairing school houses is not included.

8. By referring to the accompanying table marked B, it appears that public money amounting to the sum of \$314,769 36 was distributed to the common schools in April, 1835. The amount distributed from the common school fund is \$100,000. The sum required by law to be raised on the towns is also \$100,000. By reference to the table marked H, it will be perceived that the local funds of the towns have yielded \$18,620 92. The additional sum of \$72,674 6 is raised by law in the city of New York, and the sum of \$1,262 77 in the city of Albany, for common school purposes. All these sums make an aggregate of \$292,557 75, leaving the balance of \$22,191 61 to be accounted for in order to make up the sum of \$314,769 36 just mentioned. On examination of the reports from the Commissioners of common schools it is manifest that this balance must have been raised by taxation upon the towns, in pursuance of that provision of the Revised Statutes, vol. 1. p. 304, which authorises the inhabitants at their annual town meeting to direct such sum to be raised for the support of common schools as they may deem necessary, not exceeding the amount required by law to be raised in the town for that purpose. The following statement will shew the number of towns in each county in which such sum has been raised by a vote of the inhabitants, in addition to the amount required to be raised by law. In most of the cases the additional sum is equal to the amount received from the common school fund, so that double that amount is actually raised in the towns referred to, and the inhabitants have gone to the extent of the authority conferred on them by law to tax themselves for the support of common schools.

9. *Commissioners of Common Schools.*

Three persons are appointed under the title of Commissioners of Common Schools at the annual meeting in each town. Their duties are to regulate the boundaries of the school districts within the towns for which they are chosen, to alter existing districts, and form new ones when it becomes necessary for the convenience of the inhabitants. They receive from the County Treasurer, with whom it is deposited, the quota of the revenue of the Common School Fund to which the town is entitled, and from the collector of the town the equal amount raised upon its taxable property; and they apportion these sums among the school districts of the town according to the number of children over five and under sixteen years of age residing in each district;—provided a school has been kept in it three months by a qualified teacher during the preceding year, and provided also, the school moneys received in that year have been applied to the compensation of such teacher. They receive the annual reports of the trustees of the school districts, and from them prepare a consolidated report setting forth certain particulars specified in the statute to be transmitted to the superintendent.

10. *Inspectors of Common Schools.*

Three Inspectors of Common Schools are annually chosen in each town. Their duties are to examine all persons offering themselves as candidates for teaching common schools in the town; to visit all the common schools at least once in each year, and they may "give their advice and direction to the trustees and teachers of such schools as to the government thereof and the course of studies to be pursued therein."

11. The *Commissioners* of common schools have by virtue of their office the same powers, so that there are always six persons in each town authorised to act as inspectors.

12. In the examination of a candidate for teaching, if the inspectors are satisfied that he is qualified with respect to moral character, learning, and ability, they give him a certificate. He is then a qualified teacher for one year, unless his certificate is previously annulled on a re-examination, which the inspectors may require if they deem it necessary. So long as he holds a certificate dated within one year, he may receive the public money as a compensation in whole or in part for his services. Trustees of school districts may employ a teacher who has not been inspected, or who on examination has not been deemed qualified by the inspectors, but no such teacher can receive any portion of the public money for his wages.

13. All examinations must be made at a regular meeting called for the purpose, and attended by at least three inspectors.

14. It must be manifest on the slightest consideration, that the success of the common school system, so far as concerns the great ends of education, will depend in a higher degree on the inspectors than on any other class of officers connected with its administration. With them it lies to fix the standard of qualification for teachers, and thus to determine the amount of ability which the latter shall bring to their tasks. If the requirements of the inspectors are small, the qualifications of the teachers will as a general rule be slender, and to these the standard of education in the town will gradually conform. In practice, the rule has perhaps been reversed. The inspectors have usually, in granting certificates, been influenced by the state of education in the town, and have thus conformed to an existing standard, instead of establishing a new one of a higher grade. The superintendent has therefore uniformly urged upon the inspectors the importance of assuming a high standard of qualification, and of requiring all candidates to be tried by it. That this duty is not always properly discharged is not to be disguised. Inspectors have sometimes given a certificate of qualification to a teacher for a summer school, and, at the expiration of the term, annulled it upon the ground that he was incompetent to teach a winter school, which is usually attended by a larger proportion of older scholars. This distinction is wholly unauthorised by law, and whenever an opportunity has offered it has been condemned in pointed terms. It is no hardship to adopt, in all cases, the highest standard of requirement. School districts, it is true, are often of very small pecuniary ability; but in order to entitle a school district to a share of the income of the Common School Fund, the Statute demands only that a qualified teacher shall be annually employed for three months. It does not even require that a school shall be kept by any teacher for a longer period. There is no school district which is not capable of complying with this rule, even if a teacher of undoubted qualifications were in all cases to be required. Inspectors should therefore aim to advance the standard of requirement for teachers as much as possible. Without their aid opinion may do something, but it is in their power, by setting up a higher rule of qualification, and en-

forcing a strict conformity to it in every case, to elevate the character of the common schools to a grade which would leave little else to be desired. As will be seen in another part of this report, ample provision has recently been made by law for the education of teachers, and the inspectors may, in the manner above suggested, become in an eminent degree instrumental in securing employment for them.

15. There is another part of their duty of equal importance in its consequences, if it is faithfully and efficiently discharged. They are authorised to give "their advice and direction" "as to the course of studies to be pursued" in the common schools. This is a power involving in its exercise the greatest responsibility: and although it might be limited by a narrow construction of the law to a right to direct the order in which the particular studies chosen by some other authority should be pursued, it can hardly be taken, when viewed in connection with the other provisions of the statute in relation to the inspectors, in so restricted a sense. Indeed the phrase "course of studies" in its technical acceptation must be understood as comprehending a particular series of subjects, and the particular order in which they are to be studied. Certain it is that the inspectors in some towns have taken upon themselves to direct the studies to be pursued in the common schools within their jurisdiction; and in one case an application was made to the superintendent to define the limits of their authority, both with respect to the course of studies and the selection of school books; the inspectors having, in the case referred to, given their direction to the teacher in both these points. The matter was not brought before him in the shape of an appeal, and no decision was pronounced upon it: but with the consideration he had given to it he was at the time strongly inclined to a construction of the law in favor of the right of inspectors to direct the teachers of common schools within their jurisdiction as to the particular subjects which should be taught. With regard to the right of the inspectors to direct what class of books shall be studied in the common schools, he would have entertained but little doubt. This is manifestly a larger power than that of determining what subjects of study shall be taught. To direct a particular class book to be used, not only prescribes the subject of which it treats, but includes a specification of the extent to which it shall be studied, and in some degree also, the mode in which it shall be taught—for the manner in which a subject is treated is often the most essential part of the treatise, so far as it is a vehicle of instruction. The power of prescribing class books has not been given in express terms, nor is it perceived that it can be derived by implication from any of the powers delegated by law to the officers concerned in the supervision or management of the common schools. But with respect to subjects of study, the case is entirely different. The language of the law seems to sanction the construction which gives to the inspectors authority to direct what they shall be; and it is consistent with the other important division of their duties, which includes the examination of teachers, and determines their ability to give instruction in particular branches or subjects. The latter being fixed, the examination would have reference to them,

and the standard of requirement be settled according to a just and uniform rule.

The exercise of the authority to direct teachers as to the subjects of study to be taught, is a very delicate and responsible duty; and, if it be wisely executed, it cannot fail to exert a most beneficial influence upon the common schools. But if the authority of the inspectors were restricted to the mere examination of teachers, they might make it highly efficient as an instrument of advancing the standard of education. They might decline to grant a teacher a certificate unless he was qualified to give instruction in the branches or subjects which in their opinion ought to be taught in the common schools. Indeed such is their duty now; and independently of the obligation of performing it fearlessly and faithfully, there is, as has been already shewn, no hardship in its performance with respect to any of those who come within the sphere of their authority.

16. *Trustees of School Districts.*

In each school district there are annually chosen three Trustees, whose duty it is to call special meetings of the inhabitants whenever they deem it necessary; to make out all tax lists when taxes are voted by the inhabitants of the district; to build or repair the school house; to provide fuel, or to purchase a lot for a school house; to make out all rate bills (tuition bills) from the lists kept by the teachers; to exempt indigent persons from the payment of their proportion of such rate bills; to have the custody of the district school house; to contract with and employ all teachers, and to provide for the payment of their wages in the manner already explained under the head of "expenses."

The Trustees of school districts are the immediate representatives of the inhabitants; and as they owe their election to them, they may be considered as controlled by the public opinion of the districts in the discharge of their duty, so far as the law has left them any discretion as to the manner of performing it. They are charged with the management of the principal internal affairs of the district, and as the inhabitants residing within it pay more than three quarters of all the expenses of the school, the law has virtually deposited with them the control of almost all that concerns it. With respect to the formation of school districts, and the regulation of the boundary, a different principle prevails. The commissioners of common schools, in whom this authority is vested, are town officers; they are chosen by the suffrages of all the electors, and though they may be said to be accountable to all the districts, the voters for town officers being composed substantially of the voters in school districts, they cannot be considered as controlled by the opinion of any particular district, when it is at variance with others in matters connected with the discharge of their duties. The same principle prevails with regard to the election of inspectors. They also are town officers, and the law has very properly confided the duty of pronouncing upon the qualification of teachers, and directing the course of studies to be pursued in the common schools to individuals who, from the manner in which they are chosen, are not directly accountable to the inhabitants of any particular district. To return

to trustees of school districts. Although the law has given them certain powers, the successful exercise of some of these powers must depend on its accordance with the wishes of the inhabitants. Thus the trustees have the absolute right of employing all teachers. But if they were to engage an individual who for any reason was obnoxious to the inhabitants, the latter might refuse to send their children to school, and thus subject the trustees to some embarrassment in providing for the payment of his wages. They might, it is true, pay him the public money ; but as this would soon be exhausted, they would be obliged to collect the residue of those persons who send their children to school, and the greater part of the burthen would fall upon the trustees themselves and the few who should favor their views. Under the Prussian system this result could not happen, as all parents are required by law to send their children to school. The spirit of our common school system is to refer almost all matters relating to the districts which are of an internal or domestic character to the inhabitants themselves ; and from the organization of the districts the powers of the trustees are necessarily exercised, so far as any discretion is admissible, in subordination to the opinion of the district. But where the law has prescribed positive rules for their government, those rules are of course to be obeyed, even though such obedience were to conflict with the wishes of the inhabitants.

It is proper to add in this place that at the annual meeting of the inhabitants of each district, a collector and clerk are chosen together with the trustees.

The duty of collector is to collect and pay over to the trustees the amount of all tax lists and rate bills delivered to him for that purpose. The trustees may, before delivering to him any warrant for the collection of moneys, require him to give a bond in double the amount of the sum to be collected, conditioned for the faithful execution of his duties.

The duty of the clerk is to keep a record of all the proceedings of the district, to give notice of the time and place for all meetings of the inhabitants, and to keep and preserve all books, &c. belonging to his office.

Under a law passed at the last session of the Legislature authorising the inhabitants of school districts to purchase district libraries, a librarian may also be chosen at the annual meeting.

17. *Inhabitants of School Districts.*

In addition to the right of annually choosing officers for their respective districts, the inhabitants have power, by a majority of votes, to designate a site for the district school house, and to lay taxes on the taxable property of the district to purchase a district library and a suitable book-case ; to purchase or lease a site for a school house, to build, hire, or purchase such school house, to keep it in repair, and to furnish it with necessary fuel and appendages. By the construction given to this part of the statute by the superintendent, the term "appendages" is limited to a few simple articles which are indispensable to the comfort and health of the pupils, such as a broom, a water pail, a stove, a wood-house, &c. The inhabitants have no power to tax themselves

excepting for these enumerated objects, and whenever it is desired to raise money for any other purpose it must be done by voluntary contribution.

18. The standard of qualification for voters is so low that scarcely any individual is excluded from the exercise of the right of suffrage in respect to matters concerning the school district in which he resides. If he has been assessed in the town to work on the highway during the year, or the preceding year, he may vote at school district meetings for any authorised object. He has a voice in the choice of district officers, and though wholly destitute of property himself, he may contribute to lay a tax on the property of the district. In some cases therefore, property may be taxed for common school purposes against the wishes of its possessors; but as the objects of taxation are extremely limited, no danger is likely to arise from the abuse of this power. In the case of school houses, always the greatest object of expenditure, there is a further safeguard: no tax exceeding four hundred dollars can be voted for that object, unless the commissioners of common schools of the town certify that a larger sum is necessary. The tax for purchasing libraries is limited to \$20 the first year, and to \$10 per annum for subsequent additions to it; and all other taxes must, from the nature of the objects, be small in amount.

19. The effect of these provisions with respect to taxation in school districts in most cases is that the inhabitants tax themselves liberally for all the authorised objects referred to.

20. There is one particular in which the same praise is not so generally due. It is the case of all others in which a suitable liberality is most necessary to accomplish the objects of the system, and in which the greatest want of it has heretofore been shown. The school houses are usually comfortable and the physical wants of the scholars are sufficiently provided for. But with respect to their moral and intellectual improvement there is in general a great deficiency. The only material defect in the system is the want of competent teachers. The cause of the defect is an unwillingness on the part of the inhabitants to pay such wages as to secure the services of individuals of suitable qualifications. That much of the prevailing apathy on this subject is owing to the want of attention to its importance, will hardly be denied. Our common school system has been but a few years in operation, and it is only recently that it can be considered as having gained a solid foundation. In building up and bringing to perfection its external organization, the internal condition of the schools has been in some degree neglected.

21. Public attention has, within the last eight years been more strongly attracted to this part of the system, and in many districts correct views begin to prevail with regard to the impolicy of expending money unprofitably upon incompetent teachers. To the exertions of individuals to correct erroneous impressions on this subject, the countenance and co-operation of the Legislature have been superadded. By an act passed in the year 1834 the Regents of the University were authorized to appropriate a portion of the income of the Literature fund to the education of teachers: This authority was promptly exercised, as will be hereafter seen, and the plan adopted by the Regents has been carried into execution. So

long as the wages of teachers were extremely low, men of talents would not devote themselves to the business of teaching, nor could they afford to fit themselves for it by a regular course of preparation. The rate of compensation for teachers is gradually advancing; in some part of the State good wages are paid, and many individuals are preparing themselves for teaching as a permanent vocation. As they find employment, the demand for them will increase; for as the benefits of instruction by a well trained teacher become apparent, the influence of the example will extend to neighbouring districts; and these causes acting reciprocally upon each other, cannot fail to produce important effects.

22. The Legislature has done all that can be accomplished by legislation to promote the cause of common school education, excepting by a resort to compulsory enactments. The spirit of our institutions is averse to measures of this description. The success of the common school system has been mainly accomplished by arguments addressed to the reason and the interests of the people. Without a radical change of policy, the improvements of which it is susceptible can only be introduced through the influence of the same motives. The superintendent has heretofore expressed the belief that nothing was wanting but a full view of the subject on the part of the inhabitants of school districts, to bring into the schools a better grade of teachers. He has seen nothing to shake his confidence in this opinion, although it must be admitted that the change for the better on which it is founded proceeds by very slow degrees. When the measures adopted by the Regents of the University shall have been carried into full effect, a more rapid and general improvement may reasonably be anticipated. These measures will now be briefly considered.

23. *Education of Common School Teachers.*

In pursuance of the provisions of the act before referred to, bearing date the 2nd of May 1834, and authorising the Regents of the University to apply a part of the income of the Literature Fund to the education of common school teachers, a plan was reported to the Regents for the purpose of carrying into effect the intention of the act on the 8th of January 1835, and adopted at a subsequent meeting of the Board. The outlines of the plan are briefly as follows:—

24. An Academy was selected in each of the eight senate districts, and a department engrafted upon it for the education of teachers. To support these departments each Academy received from the Literature Fund a sufficient sum to procure the following articles of apparatus, viz:—

- An Orrery.
- A Numeral Frame and Geometrical Solids.
- A pair of Globes.
- A moveable Planisphere.
- A Tide Dial.
- An Optical Apparatus.
- The mechanical powers.
- A Hydrostatic apparatus.
- A Pneumatic apparatus.
- A Chemical apparatus.
- One hundred specimens of mineralogy.

An electrical machine.

Instruments to teach surveying.

A map of the United States.

A map of the State of New York.

An Atlas.

A Telescope.

A Quadrant.

In addition to this provision, the sum of \$191 was appropriated to enlarge the library of each of the academies in which a department was established. These expenditures were intended merely to put the departments in operation. For their support, each department is to receive annually, to pay the salary of a tutor, the further sum of \$400 from the Literature Fund, which, in addition to the means of the academies, was deemed adequate to the object.

25. The students in the departments are required to be thoroughly instructed in the following branches or subjects :—

1. The English language.

2. Writing and drawing.

3. Arithmetic; mental and written, and Book-keeping.

4. Geography and general history combined.

5. The History of the United States.

6. Geometry, Trigonometry, Mensuration, and Surveying.

7. Natural Philosophy and the Elements of Astronomy.

8. Chemistry and Mineralogy.

9. The Constitution of the United States, and the Constitution of the State of New York.

10. Select parts of the Revised Statutes, and the duties of Public Officers.

11. Moral and Intellectual Philosophy.

12. The principles of Teaching.

To these subjects it is understood to be in contemplation of the Regents to add Algebra.

26. The term of study is three years, but only eight months in each year are devoted to instruction. There is a vacation of four months in winter, to enable the students, many of whom will, it is supposed, need such a resource, to teach a district school, and thus earn something to support them in completing their course of preparation. At the end of the term each student is to be examined publicly, and if he passes a satisfactory examination in all the prescribed subjects of study, he is to receive a diploma under the seal of the academy.

27. The departments were organized in the summer of 1835, and in several of the academies they are already in successful operation. For the purpose of securing entire uniformity in the course of study and the results, the principals of the academies were intended to meet a committee of the Regents of the University in the City of Albany on the 1st of September last, and settle some preliminary arrangements. The meeting was attended by seven of the eight gentlemen, who were several days in session; the extent to which instruction in each subject of study should be carried was agreed on, and a comparison of opinions was made on every question connected with the management of the departments under their direction. The course has commenced on a uniform plan in all, and it will be carried out in

such a manner as to secure uniform results. The influence of a large number of individuals thoroughly trained to the business of teaching, cannot, if they find employment, be otherwise than beneficial; and it may do more than all other causes combined to bring about a salutary reform in the only particular in which the common school system can be considered materially defective. If the liberal provisions of the legislature are not met with a corresponding liberality on the part of the people of the State, the measure adopted by the Regents of the University will be fruitless. The individuals who shall have prepared themselves for the business of teaching must abandon it unless it yield them a fair remuneration for their services. But on the other hand, if sounder views on this subject shall be found to prevail; if the inhabitants of school districts will but see their true interest in employing well trained teachers, our common schools will soon bear, in their intellectual condition, and honorable relation to the other parts of the system, and exhibit in all its internal details, the same order and perfection which prevail in its organization. The provisions of the law have been ample, and it remains only to give an impulse to that effective public opinion which when once moved is sure to bring about the results to which it is directed. To this end the attention of all the friends of education should be turned. The people have the principal control of the system, and their opinions must be influenced. Discussion in almost any shape may promote the object. It attracts the attention of individuals and the public; and even though it may not always point to the true remedy, when it has exposed a defect, it can hardly fail to draw out the views of others and shed light on the subject.

28. In passing the law under which departments for the education of teachers have been established, the Legislature has merely provided for the more complete execution of a design long entertained; so far as respects the employment of the academies for the purpose. The propriety of founding separate institutions upon the model of the seminaries for teachers in Prussia, was for several years a subject for public discussion in this State. It was contended on the one hand that such institutions would be more likely to secure the object in view; and on the other that it might be as effectually and more readily accomplished through the organized academies. By the act of the 13th April, 1827, the avowed object of which was "to promote the education of teachers," the sum of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars was added to the capital of the Literature Fund, the income of which is appropriated to the support of the academies, subject to the visitation of the Regents of the University. Thus, although the plan of engrafting upon the academies departments for the preparation of teachers may not have been contemplated at that time, yet this measure is to be regarded only as a more complete developement of the design of the Legislature in passing the act referred to.

29. *School District Libraries.*

By an act passed at the last Session of the Legislature, the inhabitants of the school districts were authorized to vote a tax not exceeding \$20, to purchase a library for their common use, and such additional sum as should be deemed necessary to procure a

book case. They were also authorised to vote a further tax, not exceeding \$10 in any one year, to make additions to the library. As has been already stated, they were empowered by the same act to choose at the annual meeting of the district a librarian whose duty it should be to take charge of the library and have the care and custody of it under such regulations as the inhabitants of the district should prescribe.

30. The object of this provision has not been in all cases distinctly understood. It was not so much for the benefit of children attending school as for those who have completed their common school education. Its main design was to throw into School Districts and place within the reach of all their inhabitants a collection of good works on subjects calculated to enlarge their understandings and store their minds with useful knowledge. It was believed that such a measure would come strongly in aid of other provisions adopted with a view to the intellectual improvement of the great body of the people, and to point them to the true sources of their respectability and power. Works of a juvenile character would not therefore as a general rule be suited to the purposes of the law. For a more full understanding of the subject the following extract from the report of the superintendent for the year 1834, in introducing it to the attention of the Legislature, is subjoined.

"If the inhabitants of School Districts were authorised to lay a tax upon their property for the purpose of purchasing libraries for the use of the District, such a power might, with proper restrictions, become a most efficient instrument in diffusing useful knowledge, and in elevating the intellectual character of the people. A vast amount of useful information might in this manner be collected where it would be easily accessible, and its influence could hardly fail to be in the highest degree salutary by furnishing the means of improvement to those who have finished their common school education, as well as to those who have not. The demand for books would ensure extensive editions of works containing matter judiciously selected at prices which competition would soon reduce to the lowest rate at which they could be furnished. By making the imposition of the tax wholly discretionary with the inhabitants of each district, and leaving the selection of the works under their entire control, the danger of rendering such a provision subservient to the propagation of particular doctrines or opinions, would be effectually guarded against by their watchfulness and intelligence. The power of the inhabitants to lay taxes is restricted to specific objects, and a legislative act would be necessary to enlarge it."

31. The law has already been carried into effect in numerous instances, and all that is necessary to ensure a much more extensive application of its provisions is a cheap edition of books on useful subjects, and unexceptionable both in their matter and style. The superintendent has been requested in one instance to make a selection of books for a school district, and in several other cases incidental questions connected with the collection of taxes for this purpose have been brought before him, showing

conclusively that the law has already attracted a good deal of attention, although it was very recently passed, and cannot yet be generally known.

32. *General Observations.*

Some of the most prominent features of the common school system have thus been briefly surveyed, and its policy, so far as respects the distribution of power through which it is controlled, has been cursorily examined. It is, emphatically, an institution for the people, and to them has been allotted a large share in its administration. On the zeal with which their task has been performed, and on a degree of importance which they attach to its elevation to a grade commensurate with its high objects, must depend to a very considerable extent the rank they will hold in the political system under which they live, and the part they may take in giving a direction to its movements. If in any country knowledge is power, it is here. The influence of all others is feeble in comparison with it. With us there is no system of entails, or rule of primo geniture to perpetuate wealth or family distinctions. Wealth may indeed give its possessor some advantages in society ; but on that theatre of exertion where the political condition of men and communities is determined for good or for evil, it is of no account. In this field the contest must be decided by intellectual force ; and those whose destinies are involved in the issue should take care that they are not deficient in the preparation necessary to enable them to maintain their ground against the combinations of more practised and less virtuous competitors. On the part of the people contests for great principles are always deemed to involve, directly or indirectly, their inalienable rights. With what effect can those rights be vindicated without a sufficient degree of information to see how they are in danger of being impaired ? How else shall the people amid contending appeals to their understandings and interests, be able to distinguish the true from the false ? It is in the common schools alone that the knowledge indispensable to their safety can be acquired ; for in them a vast majority of the entire population receive all their education. There are few social institutions which have not, at some period in the history of mankind, been made subservient to the purposes of usurpation and tyranny. Schools of a popular character are in less danger than any other of being perverted to such a use : they have never been made, nor from their nature is it easy to make them, an engine for the dissemination of principles tending to dissolve the bonds of society, or to subvert the great maxims of human liberty. Literary institutions less popular in their organization may be more easily made the instruments of such abuse. The supervision to which they are subjected is more restricted, and their accountability is not always so direct. But if the common schools are in no danger of being approached for sinister objects, there is another which it is equally important to avert. There is danger that they will never answer the ends of their institution, if the teachers, the body of men who are relied on to infuse in them the moral and intellectual improvement which constitutes the vital principle of the whole system—are not fully adequate to the task. Will not those who are the most deeply interested in elevating the standard of education adopt the only measure by which the object can be accomplished ? Will they not bring to this subject the practical good sense

by which they are distinguished, and see in this, as in all other cases, that even the ends of economy are best answered by employing those who are most skilled in their art? The value of the common school system is universally acknowledged and felt in this State. In this respect public opinion needs no impulse. But it is no more than just to say that the importance of a higher standard of education is not so generally or correctly appreciated. Opinion has however made some advances in this particular; and a confident belief is entertained that the liberal provisions of the legislature for the preparation of teachers will meet with such a reception from an enlightened people as to remedy effectually the only material defect in our common school system, and leave nothing to be desired in relation to it, excepting that it may be permanent in its duration.

B.
*Summary of an abstract made from the returns of Common Schools in the State of New York
in the year 1835.*

COUNTIES.	No. of towns and wards in each county.	Whole No. of school districts in the towns which have made re- turns.	Whole No. of school districts which have made reports.	Average No. months in which schools have been kept in counties.	Am't of public mo- ney receiv'd & expen- ded in the districts as stated in the returns during the year 1834.	Amount paid for Teachers' wages be- side public money.	No. of children taught in the school districts which have made returns.	No. of children be- tw'n the ages of 5 & 16 yr's resid'g therein as stated in said returns.	Amount of public money distributed to the districts by the commissioners in April 1835.
Albany	14	156	151	9	\$ 7021 71	\$ 11528 32	11888	15231	\$ 6850 12
Allegany	28	263	254	6	5695 95	6938 36	12181	10572	3692 77
Broome	11	135	126	7	2116 95	3835 91	6173	5693	2193 18
Cattaraugus	23	202	178	6	2665 85	4464 88	8370	7151	2629 86
Cayuga	22	264	261	8	7389 23	9877 53	15369	15453	7612 20
Chautauque	24	306	281	7	5047 05	9245 59	15413	13307	5415 63
Chenango	19	291	278	7	5835 73	7548 50	18489	11870	5902 68
Clinton	8	113	108	6	3142 74	3114 18	5673	6213	3172 33
Columbia	19	188	187	9	3691 65	11832 86	9157	10670	3846 51
Cortland	11	163	165	7	3577 24	4480 81	8562	7315	3539 24
Delaware	18	256	243	7	3493 61	7201 62	11491	9938	3493 70
Dutchess	18	206	196	9	5371 34	14887 23	9827	12504	5508 60
Erie	22	239	226	7	4841 66	9441 91	14285	14791	4829 87
Essex	15	146	131	6	2203 82	3861 40	6301	5825	2444 74
Franklin	12	95	90	6	1860 40	2100 61	4051	3811	1877 19
Genesee	24	344	336	8	6340 75	15319 47	20353	17775	6579 18
Green	11	152	148	8	3387 87	7043 89	7750	8238	3661 67
Herkimer	18	196	191	8	3969 16	8398 95	10992	10604	3918 16
Jefferson	19	312	299	7	6392 59	11632 83	17160	15739	6526 74
Kings	14	20	18	12	1421 84	4043 73	1466	5562	2137 50
Lewis	11	116	112	7	1865 68	3097 83	4952	4812	1872 56
Livingston	12	167	163	8	3870 44	7926 99	9200	9258	3794 70
Madison	13	222	219	7	5370 26	7490 89	12683	11389	5601 83

Monroe.....	21	242	235	9	6731 03	15394 41	16420	16514	6261 95
Montgomery.....	20	226	222	8	4672 27	11533 18	12352	14145	4684 05
New York.....	15	78	78	12	9327 18		14721		93827 18
Niagara.....	11	136	117	7	253957	5839 15	6654	7176	2579 59
Oneida.....	29	360	350	8	8233 28	12666 03	19793	24376	8282 32
Ononaga.....	18	304	299	8	9300 46	11419 87	17859	17733	9214 74
Ontario.....	14	218	206	8	4644 45	12011 81	11780	11857	4812 37
Orange.....	14	188	173	9	4823 50	4524 77	10935	13158	4770 70
Orleans.....	8	122	113	8	2764 24	6231 49	7683	6344	2754 73
Oswego.....	20	226	206	7	4363 52	5411 09	10347	10317	3998 94
Otsego.....	22	322	320	7	5583 31	10671 77	17172	15278	5283 35
Putnam.....	5	68	64	8	1337 17	3855 28	3083	3514	1323 43
Queens.....	6	77	64	10	2481 02	7647 49	3244	6102	2509 73
Rensselaer.....	19	192	184	8	5110 35	10063 78	11073	13324	5187 91
Richmond.....	4	18	18	10	758 20	2112 26	971	2191	758 20
Rockland.....	4	34	32	0	953 34	3745 52	1627	2514	1001 08
Saratoga.....	20	207	199	8	4172 42	10260 47	11099	11123	4107 92
Schenectady.....	7	54	53	8	895 48	2092 31	2736	3165	956 91
Schoharie.....	10	162	159	8	2377 33	6626 33	8047	9141	2935 28
Seneca.....	10	110	110	8	4099 39	5955 08	6318	7017	4260 63
St. Lawrence.....	24	310	292	6	7620 60	6381 93	12802	12818	6885 63
Steuben.....	24	239	263	6	4649 93	8012 83	13308	12327	4848 08
Suffolk.....	9	131	124	9	2759 00	9283 01	7521	7763	2784 59
Sullivan.....	9	88	80	7	1909 33	2580 26	3353	3807	1966 05
Tioga.....	19	226	201	7	3663 70	6013 59	9763	9727	3823 97
Tomkins.....	10	214	209	8	7001 11	6609 01	12649	12225	7679 34
Ulster.....	14	164	157	8	3892 58	9055 90	3511	11422	3862 28
Warren.....	9	105	93	5	1296 70	2068 08	3637	3436	1293 63
Washington.....	17	254	242	7	4539 27	9991 92	12782	11759	4465 81
Wayne.....	15	205	201	8	4529 61	8957 66	12547	12013	4488 74
Westchester.....	21	142	135	10	3195 39	42353 93	7001	9693	3858 79
Yates.....	8	103	103	8	2933 86	4513 54	5910	6240	2150 43
TOTAL.	842	10132	9676	8	312181 20	419878 69	541401	543085	314749 36

Having decided that it would be expedient to recommend an immediate distribution of the income of the fund, the committee next proceeded to consider upon what principle this distribution should be made. This was regarded by the committee as a question of some delicacy, and they have given to it the mature deliberation which its importance required. They have also consulted some of the persons most interested in the subject of popular education in this neighborhood, and have taken advantage of the presence of an intelligent citizen of the State of New York to obtain information as to the results of the method adopted in that great and flourishing member of the Union. The information thus obtained has been compared with that afforded by the published accounts of the state of education in foreign countries as far as they could be conveniently consulted, and by such other sources as were accessible to the committee. In answer to their inquiries on these points, the committee were favored by a highly respectable and intelligent subject of the King of Prussia, now travelling in this country, with a lucid, and at the same time, very succinct exposition of the Prussian system, which has become celebrated throughout the christian world. A copy of this paper is submitted with the present report. From the best consideration which they have been able to give to the subject, the committee were satisfied that the distribution of the income of the fund should be so regulated as to stimulate the exertions of those who receive it, rather than to relieve them from any portion of the taxes which they now pay for the purpose of education. The amount now raised, though considerable, is not burthensome to the people, and is cheerfully contributed for an object which is generally acknowledged to be of paramount importance. If the effect of the fund were merely to change the form in which this amount is raised, it would be of little or no benefit to the community. If it can be so managed as to increase the amount, and at the same time to improve the methods of applying it, the results will be highly important and may even constitute an epoch in the history of education in this commonwealth.

The act of the last General Court which established the fund, provided that the income should be distributed among the several towns and districts. The committee propose to adopt this provision as the basis of the system of distribution, and with a view to the promotion of the first of the two objects just alluded to, namely that of making the fund as far as possible an instrument for increasing the amount of money appropriated to the purpose of education they recommend that one half of the income should be distributed to the towns *in shares proportioned to their population*, and the other half *in shares proportioned to the amount of money which they shall raise themselves for the use of schools*. On this plan, if of two towns of equal population, say one thousand inhabitants each, one shall raise a thousand dollars for the purpose of education, and the other five hundred dollars, the former will receive two thousand dollars from the income of the fund, and the latter fifteen hundred, or in that proportion. In this way it is hoped and believed that the fund, instead of inducing the people to relax in any degree from the efforts which they now make, will operate as a bounty upon new and still more liberal contributions.

The other of the two objects just alluded to as those to which the

fund might be made subservient, namely, the improvement of the methods of applying the money thus raised to the purpose of education, is perhaps even more important than that of increasing its amount. It is thought by some intelligent persons that the amount now annually raised in this commonwealth for the use of schools, and which is calculated at about one million dollars, would, if applied in the best possible manner, be amply sufficient for every useful purpose. Unfortunately the methods of applying it are often very defective. In the construction of the buildings, in the amount and quality of the books and scientific apparatus, and especially in the system of procuring teachers, the committee are persuaded that there is great room for improvement, and they believe that a portion of the proceeds of the fund may be employed with great advantage in endeavoring to promote it.

The last of these points, namely, the method of procuring teachers, is the one which now engages, perhaps more strongly than any other, the attention of the friends of education throughout the christian world. The great superiority of the Prussian system, which, as the committee have before remarked, has become celebrated, is supposed to result from the care bestowed upon this department. In that kingdom a distinct class of schools is appropriated especially to the education of teachers, and the masters of the common schools are all taken from among the persons educated in these seminaries. In the State of New York the same system has been recently adopted in a somewhat different and perhaps less effective form. It is believed by the committee that an appropriation of a portion of the income of the fund to the education of teachers upon some well devised plan would do more for the cause of public instruction in this commonwealth than almost any innovation on the existing institutions that could well be imagined. In consequence of the shortness of the time which they have had at their disposal, and of the amount of other business which has devolved upon them, the committee have not yet had it in their power to mature such a plan, and they respectfully request permission to submit a separate report upon this subject at a future day.

The committee propose, as has been already remarked, to make it a condition of the distribution of the income of the fund that the towns shall maintain *efficient school committees*, and make regular returns of the state of their schools. It is believed that the operation of the fund in these respects will supersede the necessity of any direct action upon the subjects of the orders referred to the committee as enumerated above, and they accordingly request that they may be discharged from the further consideration of the same.

In pursuance of the views detailed above, the committee beg leave to report a bill providing for the distribution of the income of the School Fund.

For the Committee,
(Signed)

A. H. EVERETT



The following paper was prepared by a gentleman now travelling in this country as commissioner from the King of Prussia, to collect information on the subject of our political

W

and social institutions. It consists of the answers to a series of questions proposed to him by the superintendent of the schools of the State of New York. The source from which it proceeds entitles it to implicit confidence, and although very succinct, it may be read with advantage as a summary of the information contained in the extended and valuable work of Professor Cousin on that subject.

O U T L I N E OF THE PRUSSIAN SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

FIRST QUERY.

How are the Seminaries for the education of Teachers supported in Prussia—at the expense of the Government or the Department?

The seminaries for the teachers of primary schools are entirely supported by Government from the general school fund, which has two separate divisions—the Catholic school fund and the Protestant school fund.

The expense of these seminaries belongs to the ordinary annual budget of the Ministry of Public Instruction, which is only subjected to a common *visa*, but not to an extraordinary scrutinizing revision, if it does not contain new items which were not before introduced into it.

Some of the seminaries have ancient endowments in landed property which contribute to diminish the expense of the Royal Treasury, but the departments have nothing to spend for *this* part of popular education. In the year 1831 the annual expense for thirty-three seminaries amounted to nearly \$80,000, whereof the Treasury had only to pay about \$60,000.

At the beginning of 1833 there were forty-two seminaries in the kingdom with a population of thirteen millions of inhabitants. To each of these seminaries a small elementary school for children of the city is attached, but merely as a means to develop the practical skill of the future teachers. The expense of the seminaries makes nearly the fifteenth part of the entire expense of the primary schools. The expense of the primary schools is borne nearly in such proportions by the state, and by the parishes, or rather “communes” consisting of a village or of a city, that the last contributes nineteen-twentieths of the expenditure, and the state only one-twentieth part.

SECOND QUERY.

Do the pupils who are trained to the business of teaching, pay, while at the seminaries, the expenses of their board and tuition, or are they supported in whole or in part by the state?

The whole expense of the erection of seminaries and of providing them with suitable buildings wherein the professors and the pupils live, as well as with a library, apparatus for instruction, and musical instruments for the exercise of the pupils is borne by the state. As to the board of the pupils, it is paid for by far the greatest proportion of them, and provided for all by the state.

There is only a small part of the pupils for whom the magistrates of the places of their nativity and residence, or their relatives, make a small annual payment to the treasurer of the seminary.

Those pupils which receive their education and support wholly from the state are legally bound to fill during a certain number of years the situations of schoolmasters to which they are elected, receiving always the annual salary attached to each of these situations. The length of time during which they have to fill in this way some place of schoolmaster offered to them is three years. Should they not choose to accept such an appointment when offered to them, they have to pay to the treasurer of the seminary where they were educated, for each year of instruction \$14 and the whole amount of their board.

Of the forty-two seminaries existing first January 1833, twenty-eight were large, with 25 to 100 pupils. The law, which from unavoidable circumstances has not always been observed, prescribed never to have more than sixty or seventy pupils in a seminary. These seminaries were entirely supported from the state or from their own funds. The remaining fourteen seminaries, which may be called branch seminaries, count each of them six to eighteen pupils, sometimes under the superintendence of an experienced clergyman or rector, and in these the state contributes only a part of their income.

In some of the larger seminaries the state gives, besides board, a small gratuity to some of the best and most informed pupils, who act as assistant teachers of their younger fellow students.

The number of pupils in these forty-two institutions amounted, at the above mentioned period, to more than two thousand, the number of situations for school masters to about twenty-two thousand, and the number of pupils formed for these situations, annually leaving the seminaries to about eight or nine hundred. The annual vacancies in the situations of schoolmasters amount to about three or four per cent, so that with due allowance for pupils selecting other situations, or retained by bodily infirmities there, there still remains a sufficient number of candidates for such appointments, and the possibility of making their examinations as rigorous as they ought to be.

The expenditure of the state for the seminaries amounts annually to a little more than \$80,000.

THIRD QUERY.

What is the term or duration of the course in the seminaries?

The usual length of the course of education in the seminaries is three years, each year having two terms. In the smaller or branch seminaries forming schoolmasters for the poorest and most thinly inhabited villages the course is limited to two years.

The schoolmasters which have an appointment are sometimes (perhaps every year) assembled at the nearest seminary for the purpose of receiving there during three or four weeks, a term of instruction on methods newly invented in the progress of the art of teaching.

Besides this, the most distinguished or most active schoolmasters receive from the Consistory of the Province small premiums in money or books. The schoolmasters of the circles (nearly equal

to one or two townships) have, under the protection of the Government, weekly conferences where they discuss the different methods of instruction, comment on new works on education, keep exact minutes of these transactions, and read their own observations or papers on these subjects.

FOURTH QUERY.

What are the subjects of study in the seminaries?

The age of entering into the Seminaries is between sixteen and eighteen years, and the pupils are free from any service in the army or in the Militia during time of peace.

The Seminaries wherein no pupil can be received who has not gone through the elementary instruction, or whose morality is subject to the least doubt, are destined to form teachers for the elementary or primary schools, as well as for the middle or citizens' schools, where no instruction in the classical languages is given.

The parts which constitute the course [of instruction for such teachers are :—

1. Religion—Biblical history, introductory and commentary lessons on the Bible, systematic instruction on the religious and moral duties of man.

2. The German language in an etymological and grammatical point of view.—Exercises in expressing thoughts and reasoning orally and by writing.

3.—Mathematics.—Arithmetic as well from memory or intellectual as by putting down the numbers, geometry, stereometry and trigonometry.

4. A knowledge of the world, consisting in an acquaintance with the most important events or objects in history, natural history, natural philosophy, geography, and cosmography, or physical geography.

5. Musical instruction, consisting in the theory and practice of singing, theory of music, instruction in playing on the violin and the organ.

6. Drawing according to the system of Peter Schmid, and penmanship.

7. The theory of education, the theory and practice of teaching and their connexion with religious service, the liturgy.

8. Gymnastic exercises of all kinds.

9. Where it is practicable, theoretical and practical instruction in horticulture, in the cultivation of fruit trees and husbandry. In the country the dwelling-house of the schoolmaster has a garden, serving as a nursery and an orchard, for the benefit of the schoolmaster who resides there, without paying any rent or local taxes, and for the instruction of the village. In latter years the rearing of silkworms and the propuction of silk has been frequently tried by the schoolmasters in the country, the Government furnishing mulberry trees and other materials.

What is still more important than this complete course of instruction, is the *spirit of religious and moral industry and self-denial which pervades the seminaries*, continually supported and inculcated by the directors, all highly distinguished men of piety and learning, and by the strict discipline under which the pupils live, without feeling themselves fettered by it.

FIFTH QUERY.

How far is instruction in each subject of study carried? For instance, where does the course of Mathematics terminate, and to what extent is geography taught?

The answer to this question may be found already in the preceding one.

On the whole the schoolmaster is so trained that he may form in connexion with the Rector, even of the remotest village, where the last mentioned is always President *ex-officio* of the school committee elected by the inhabitants, a central point of religious, moral, and intellectual information, sending its beneficent, and cheerful beams through the whole extent of the little community.

This whole system of instruction tends to a religious and moral end, and rests on the sacred basis of christian love. As the most affecting, and indeed, sublime example of this spirit, I mention the little or branch seminaries for training poor schoolmasters in such habits and with such feelings as shall fit them to be useful and contented teachers of the poorest villages. Here is poverty to which that of the poorest laborers in this country is affluence,—and it is *hopeless*, for to this class of schoolmasters no idea is held out of advancement or change. Yet if ever poverty on earth appeared serene, contented, lofty, beneficent, it is here. “Here we see,” as the well-informed English translator of Cousin’s Report on the state of Public Instruction in Prussia says,—“Here we see men in the very spring-time of life, so far from being made, as we are told men must be made, restless and envious and discontented by instruction, taking indigence and obscurity to their hearts for life; raised above their poor neighbors in education, only that they may become the servants of all, and may train the lowliest children in a sense of the dignity of man, and the beauty of creation, in the love of God and virtue.”

SIXTH QUERY.

What apparatus is required in the Seminaries? For instance, what in Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, and other branches?

The first thing requisite for the larger seminaries is a house, with ground for gymnastic exercises, for horticulture, and an orchard with fruit trees to teach pomology, &c. attached to it.

Besides this, a library composed principally of works on theology, moral philosophy, the art of teaching and systems of education, historical and geographical compendiums, books on natural history, natural philosophy, husbandry, cultivation of fruits and vegetables, rearing of bees and silk worms, the German classics, and musical works and compositions. Farther, a number of musical instruments—violins, flutes, pianos, and a large organ.

The apparatus for chemistry and natural philosophy comprises only those instruments which are requisite for those primary branches of both sciences that may be of use to the future schoolmaster, and also a small cabinet of natural history, consisting of minerals, plants, and animals.

MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

After having answered as satisfactorily as it was possible at the present moment in a situation without access to the official sources of information, the queries proposed to me, I take the liberty to

add a few observations on some other points intimately connected with the Prussian system of primary education, and serving perhaps to elucidate my preceding answers.

1. *The compulsory system of primary education*, first introduced in 1819 in Prussia existed there as well as in the remainder of Germany in a certain way, some centuries before. This system which has been enforced already by the first settlers in New England, and which was introduced by the Prussian Government in the provinces formerly under the dominion of France, slowly and with due forbearance, is now hailed by nearly all the inhabitants of the kingdom as the greatest benefit that could be bestowed upon them. This is proved by the following official numbers of the civil inhabitants, of the children between the first day of their seventh and the last of their fourteenth year, the age of school compulsion, and of the primary, middle, and grammar schools with their teachers and pupils. The number of inhabitants was taken by census, and the number of children from seven to fourteen years ascertained in the rule well known to political economists, that among 1,000 inhabitants of a country taken on average 429* are from the beginning of the seventh to the end of the fourteenth year.

1831. Inhabitants (without the army).....	12,780,745
Children from 7 to 14 years.....	2,043,030
Primary schools.....	21,889
Teachers in primary schools of both sexes...	24,919
Scholars { boys 987,475 }	1,917,834
Elm. Schools { girls 930,359 }	
Middle schools (for boys 481, for girls 342).....	823
Teachers in middle schools, (male 2,296, female 514)...	2,810
Scholars in { boys 56,879 }	103,477
Middle schools { girls 46,598 }	
Colleges for Citizens and Grammar Schools.....	140
Teachers in Colleges and Grammar Schools.....	1,493
Scholars in Colleges and Grammar Schools.....	26,041
Taking together the scholars of the three mentioned gradations, we find,	
Scholars in elementary schools.....	1,917,834
Scholars in middle schools.....	103,477
Scholars in Colleges for citizens, and grammar schools	26,041

2,047,352

Number of children from 7 to 14 years..... 2,043,030

We find therefore, though many children are retained by bodily or mental infirmities, from visiting the public schools, and though many children of the higher classes are educated at home or in private boarding schools, that *more* children visit the public schools that are legally bound to do it. This arises from the circumstance that many children are sent to school before the prescribed age of six years, or go there after the beginning of the fifteenth year, proving at the same time the good sense of the population and the value they set upon a religious and moral instruction.

2. It will not be useless to give here a short enumeration of the *subjects taught in the elementary schools and in the middle schools*,

*This must have been an error, it should have been 160 instead of 429.

the latter being for those who do not pretend to attain the highest degree of perfection in the different trades, commerce, manufacturing business, &c. &c.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

- *1. Religious instruction.
- 2. German language.
- 3. Elements of Geometry and Drawing.
- *4. Calculation and practical Arithmetic.
- 5. Elements of Geography, General and Prussian History, and Natural Philosophy.
- *6. Singing.
- *7. Reading.
- *8. Writing.
- *9. Gymnastic Exercises.
- 10. Simple manual labors, agricultural instruction.
- *11. For girls, female work.

MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

- 1. Religion and Morals.
- 2. German language, Reading and Composition in style, the German classics.
- 3. Foreign modern languages.
- 4. As much Latin as is necessary for the exercise of the mental faculties and the power of judgment.
- 5. Complete practical Arithmetic and the Elements of Mathematics.
- 6. Natural History, Chemistry, and natural Philosophy, to explain the phenomena of nature.
- 7. Geography of the Globe, and its position in the solar system.
- 8. History, especially of Prussia.
- 9. Drawing.
- 10. Writing in the highest perfection.
- 11. Singing.
- 12. Gymnastic exercises.

3. It will, I think, not be thought superfluous, if I close these observations by a *list of the best German school books* introduced into the Prussian schools. A set of these, partly for translating, partly for imitating them, would certainly be a useful acquisition for this country, the Germans having occupied themselves for many centuries with the different methods of teaching, and according to their fundamental principle "as is the master so is the school" always rejecting the Monitorial or Lancasterian system, which can only be useful as an auxiliary in certain mechanical details, but which, on account of its lifeless mechanism, ought never to be employed where *christians* are to be formed.

LOGICAL EXERCISES.

(The Logical Exercises, a kind of instruction peculiar to Germany, consists in devoting an hour or two each day by the teacher to keep up a conversation with his pupils, to impart to them in this conversation facts relating to history, Natural History, Geography,

*The subjects marked with an asterisk *must* be taught, even in the poorest village schools, the others can *there* be dispensed with.

&c., and by eliciting from them answers and observations relating to such facts, to sharpen their judgment, and to awaken their faculties of thought and reflection. We think these exercises which must be seen to be well understood, next to religious instruction the most important branch of the whole system excluding by its very nature the use of monitors.)

Herewith I close this short paper on the state of primary education in Prussia, which, incomplete as it is, in combination with the fact that regular quarterly returns on all juvenile delinquencies in the kingdom, are sent by the courts of law to the minister of public instruction, and that we have in Prussia now, twenty-eight institutions for juvenile delinquents, or houses of reform, *none for more than sixty pupils all of the same sex*, will give some idea of the subject treated. But I must still add that all this is only a part of the whole system, and that it is as a whole that the national education of Prussia is worthy of study and imitation. No work can be better adapted to give an introductory view of the general organization of this system, than Mr. Cousin's report on the state of Public Instruction in Prussia, printed in the beginning of this year in London.

New York, 12th December, 1834.



Extracts from the Works of Miss Edgeworth.

To make any progress in the art of education, it must be patiently reduced to an experimental science; we are fully sensible of the extent and difficulty of this undertaking, and we have not the arrogance to imagine, that we have made any considerable progress in a work which the labours of many generations, may, perhaps, be insufficient to complete; but we lay before the public the result of our experiments and in many instances the experiments themselves.—In pursuing this part of our plan, we have sometimes descended from that elevation of style which the reader might expect in a quarto volume; we have frequently been obliged to record facts concerning children which may seem trifling, and to enter into a minuteness of detail which may appear unnecessary.—No anecdotes, however, have been admitted without due deliberation; nothing has been introduced to gratify the idle curiosity of others, or to indulge our own feelings of domestic partiality.

In what we have written upon the rudiments of science, we have pursued an opposite plan, so far from attempting to teach them in detail, we refer our readers to the excellent treatises on the different branches of science and on the various faculties of the human mind, which are to be found in every language.—The chapters that we have introduced upon these subjects, are intended merely as specimens of the manner in which we think young children should be taught. We have found from experience that an early knowledge of the first principles of science may be given in conversation, and may be insensibly acquired from the usual incidents of life; if this knowledge be carefully associated with the technical terms which common use may preserve in the memory, much of the difficulty of subsequent instruction may be avoided.

The sketches we have hazarded upon these subjects, may to some appear too slight and to others too abstruse and tedious. To those who have explored the vast mines of human knowledge, small specimens appear trifling and contemptible, while the less accustomed eye is somewhat dazzled and confused by the appearance even of a small collection; but to the most enlightened mind, new combinations may be suggested by a new arrangement of materials, and the curiosity and enthusiasm of the inexperienced may be awakened, and excited to accurate and laborious researches.

With respect to what is commonly called the education of the heart we have endeavoured to suggest the easiest means of inducing useful and agreeable habits, well regulated sympathy, and benevolent affections. A witty writer says, "*Il est permis d'ennuier en moralites d'ici jusqu'à Constantinople*" unwilling to avail ourselves of this permission we have sedulously avoided declamation, and wherever we have been obliged to repeat ancient maxims and common truths we have at least thought it becoming to present them in a new dress.

On religion and politicks we have been silent because we have no ambition to gain partizans or to make proselytes, and because we do not address ourselves exclusively to any sect or to any party. The scrutinizing eye of criticism, in looking over our table of contents, will also probably observe that there are no chapters on courage and chastity. To pretend to teach courage to Britons, would be as ridiculous as unnecessary; and except among those who are exposed to the contagion of foreign manners we may boast of the superior delicacy of our fair country-women, a delicacy acquired from domestic example, and confirmed by public approbation. Our opinions concerning the female character and understanding have been fully detailed in a former publication; and unwilling to fatigue by repetition, we have touched but slightly upon these subjects in our chapters on temper, female accomplishments, prudence, and economy.

We have warned our readers not to expect from us any new theory of education; but they need not apprehend that we have written without method, or that we have thrown before them a heap of desultory remarks and experiments which led to no general conclusions, and which tend to the establishment of no useful principles; we assure them that we have worked upon a regular plan, and where we have failed of executing our design, it has not been for want of labor or attention. Convinced that it is the duty and the interest of all who write to enquire into what others have said and thought upon the subject of which they treat, we have examined attentively the works of others, that we might collect whatever knowledge they contain, and that we might neither arrogate inventions which do not belong to us, nor weary the public by repetition. Some useful and ingenious essays may probably have escaped our notice; but we flatter ourselves that our readers will not find reason to accuse us of negligence, as we have pursued with diligent attention every work upon education that has obtained the sanction of time or of public approbation; and tho' we have never bound ourselves to the letter, we hope we have been faithful to the spirit of their authors. Without encumbering ourselves with any part of their systems which has not been authorized by experience, we have steadily attempted immediately to apply to practice such of their

ideas as we have thought useful; but while we have used the thoughts of others, we have been anxious to avoid mean plagiarism; and wherever we have borrowed, the debt has carefully been acknowledged.

The first hint of the chapter on Toys was received from Dr. Beddoes; the sketch of an introduction to chemistry for children was given to us by Mr. Lovell Edgeworth; and the rest of the work was resumed from a design formed and began twenty years ago. When a book appears under the name of two authors it is natural to enquire what share belongs to each of them; all that relates to the art of teaching to read in the chapter on tasks, the chapters on grammar and classical literature, geography, chronology, arithmetic, geometry and mechanics, were written by Mrs. Edgeworth and the rest of the book by Miss Edgeworth. She was encouraged and enabled to write upon this important subject by having for many years before her eyes the conduct of a judicious mother in the education of a large family. The chapter on obedience was written from Mrs. Edgeworth's notes, and was exemplified by her successful practice in the management of her children; the whole manuscript was submitted to her judgement and she revised parts of it in the last stage of a fatal disease.

EXTRACTS

FROM AN ADDRESS TO THE PUBLIC PARTICULARLY TO THE MEMBERS OF THE **Legislature of New-York,**

PROPOSING A PLAN FOR IMPROVING **FEMALE EDUCATION**

BY
EMMA WILLARD.

ADDRESS, &c.

The object of this address is to convince the public that a reform with respect to female education is necessary; that it cannot be effected by individual exertion, but that it requires the aid of the Legislature: and further by showing the justice, the policy, and the magnanimity of such an undertaking, to persuade that body to endow a seminary for females as the commencement of such reformation.

The idea of a college for males will naturally be associated with that of a seminary instituted and endowed by the public; and the absurdity of sending ladies to college may, at first thought, strike

every one to whom this subject shall be proposed. I therefore hasten to observe that the seminary here recommended, will be as different from those appropriated to the other sex, as the female character and duties are from the male. The business of the husband is not to waste his endeavours in seeking to make his orchard attain the strength and majesty of his forest, but to rear each to the perfection of its nature.

That the improvement of the female education will be considered by our enlightened citizens as a subject of importance, the liberality with which they part with their property to educate their daughters, is a sufficient evidence; and why should they not when assembled in the Legislature, act in concert to effect a noble object, which, though dear to them individually, cannot be accomplished by their unconnected exertions.

If the improvement of the American female character, and that alone, could be effected by public liberality, employed in giving better means of instruction: such improvement of one half of society, and that half, which barbarous and despotic nations have ever degraded, would of itself be an object worthy of the most liberal government on earth; but if the female character be raised, it must inevitably raise that of the other sex: and thus does the plan proposed offer as the object of legislative bounty, to elevate the whole character of the community.

As evidence that this statement does not exaggerate the female influence in society, our sex need but be considered in the single relation of mothers. In this character, we have the charge of the whole mass of individuals who are to compose the succeeding generation; during that period of youth when the pliant mind takes any direction to which it is steadily guided by a forming hand. How important a power is given by this charge! yet little do too many of my sex know how either to appreciate or improve it. Unprovided with the means of acquiring that knowledge which flows liberally to the other sex—having our time of education devoted to frivolous acquirements, how should we understand the nature of the mind, so as to be aware of the importance of those early impressions which we make upon the minds of our children? or how should we be able to form enlarged and correct views, either of the character to which we ought to mould them, or of the means most proper to form them aright?

Considered in this point of view, were the interests of male education alone to be consulted, that of females becomes of sufficient importance to engage the public attention. Would we rear the human plant to its perfection, we must first fertilize the soil which produces it. If it acquires its first bent and texture upon a barren plain, it will avail comparatively little should it be afterwards transplanted to a garden.

In the arrangement of my remarks, I shall pursue the following order:—

1st. Treat of the defects of the present mode of female education and their causes.

2nd. Consider the principles by which education should be regulated.

3rd. Sketch a plan of a female seminary.

4th. Shew the benefits which society would receive from such mineries.

Defects in the present mode of Female Education and their causes.

Civilized nations have long since been convinced that education, as it respects males, will not like trade regulate itself; and hence they have made it a prime object to provide that sex with every thing requisite to facilitate their progress in learning: but female education has been left to the mercy of private adventurers: and the consequence has been, to our sex the same as it would have been to the other, had legislatures left their accommodations and means of instruction, to chance also.

Education cannot prosper in any community, unless from the ordinary motives which actuate the human mind, the best and most cultivated talents of that community can be brought into exercise in that way. Male education flourishes, because from the guardian care of Legislatures, the presidencies and professorships of our colleges, are some of the highest objects to which the eye of ambition is directed. Not so with female institutions. Preceptresses of these are dependent on their pupils for support, and are consequently liable to become the victims of their caprice. In such a situation it is not more desirable to be a preceptress than it would to be a parent, invested with the care of children, and responsible for their behaviour, but yet depending upon them for subsistence, and destitute of power to enforce their obedience.

Feminine delicacy requires that girls should be educated chiefly by their own sex; this is apparent from considerations, that regard their health and conveniences, the propriety of their dress and manners, and their domestic accomplishments.

Boarding Schools, therefore, whatever may be their defects, furnish the best mode of education provided for females.

Concerning these schools, it may be observed.

1st. They are temporary institutions, formed by individuals whose object is present emolument. But they cannot be expected to be greatly lucrative; therefore the individuals who establish them cannot afford to provide suitable accommodations, as to room. At night the pupils are frequently crowded in their lodging rooms; and during the day they are generally placed together in one apartment, where there is a heterogeneous mixture of different kinds of business, accompanied with so much noise and confusion as greatly to impede their progress in study.

2nd. As individuals cannot afford to provide suitable accommodations as to room, so neither can they afford libraries and other apparatus necessary to teach properly the various branches in which they pretend to instruct.

3. Neither can the individuals who establish these schools afford to provide suitable instruction. It not unfrequently happens that one instructress teaches at the same time, and in the same room, ten or twelve different branches. If assistants are provided, such are usually taken as can be procured for a small compensation. True, in our large cities, preceptresses provide their pupils with masters, though at an expense which few can afford—yet none of these masters are responsible for the general proficiency or demeanor of the pupils. Their only responsibility is in the particular branch which they teach; and to a preceptress who probably does not understand herself, and who is therefore incapable of judging whether or not it is well taught.

4. It is impossible that in those schools such systems should be adopted and enforced as are requisite for properly classing the pupils. Institutions for young gentlemen are founded by public authority, and are permanent; they are endowed with funds, and their instructors and overseers are invested with authority to make such laws as they shall deem most salutary. From their permanency, their laws and rules are well known. With their funds they procure libraries, philosophical apparatus, and other advantages, superior to what can elsewhere be found; and to enjoy these, individuals are placed under their discipline, who would not else be subjected to it. Hence the directors of these institutions can enforce, among other regulations, those which enable them to make a perfect classification of their students. They regulate their qualifications for entrance, the kind and order of their studies, and the period of their remaining at the seminary. Female schools present the reverse of this. Wanting permanency, and dependent on individual patronage, had they the wisdom to make salutary regulations, they could neither enforce nor purchase compliance. The pupils are irregular in their times of entering and leaving school; and they are of various and dissimilar acquirements. Each scholar of mature age thinks she has a right to judge for herself respecting what she is to be taught; and the parents of those who are not, consider that they have the same right to judge for them. Under such disadvantages, a school cannot be classed, except in a very imperfect manner.

5. It is for the interest of instructors of boarding schools to teach their pupils showy accomplishments rather than those which are solid and useful. Their object in teaching is generally present profit. In order to realise this, they must contrive to give immediate celebrity to their schools. If they attend chiefly to the cultivation of the mind, their work may not be manifest at the first glance; but let the pupil return home, laden with fashionable toys, and her young companions filled with envy and astonishment, are never satisfied till they are permitted to share the precious instruction. If it is true, with the turn of the fashion, the toys which they are taught to make will become obsolete; and no benefit remain to them of perhaps the only money that will ever be expended on their education; but the object of the instructress may be accomplished notwithstanding, if that is directed to her own, rather than her pupil's advantage.

6. As these Schools are private establishments, their preceptresses are not accountable to any other particular persons. Any woman has a right to open a School in any place: and no one, either from Law or custom, can prevent her. Hence the Public are liable to be imposed upon, both with respect to the character and acquirements of preceptresses. I am far however from asserting that this is always the case. It has been before observed, that in the present state of things the ordinary motives which actuate the human mind would not induce ladies of the best and most cultivated talents to engage in the business of instructing from choice. But some have done it from necessity, and occasionally an extraordinary female has occupied herself in instructing because she felt that impulse to be active and useful which is the characteristic of a vigorous and noble mind; and because she found few avenues to extensive usefulness open to her sex. But if such has

been the fact, it has not been the consequence of any system from which a similar result can be expected to recur with regularity; and it remains true that the public are liable to imposition both with regard to the character and acquirements of preceptresses.

Instances have lately occurred in which women of bad reputation, at a distance from scenes of their former life, have been entrusted by our unsuspecting citizens with the instruction of their daughters.

But the moral reputation of individuals is more a matter of public notoriety than their literary attainments; hence society are more liable to be deceived with regard to the acquirements of instructresses, than with respect to their characters.

Those women however who deceive society as to the advantages which they give their pupils, are not charged with any ill intention. They teach as they were taught, and believe that the public are benefitted by their labors. Acquiring, in their youth, a high value for their own superficial accomplishments, they regard all others as supernumerary, if not unbecoming. Altho' these considerations exculpate individuals, yet they do not diminish the injury which society receives; for they shew that the worst which is to be expected from such instruction is not that pupils will remain ignorant; but that by adopting the views of their teachers they will have their minds barred against future improvement by acquiring a disrelish, if not a contempt, for useful knowledge.

7. Altho', from a want of public support, preceptresses of boarding schools have not the means of enforcing such a system as would lead to a perfect classification of their pupils; and altho' they are confined in other respects within narrow limits yet because these establishments are not dependent on any public body within these limits, they have a power far more arbitrary and uncontrolled than is allowed the learned and judicious instructors of our male seminaries.

They can, at their option, omit their own duties, and excuse their pupils from theirs.

They can make absurd and ridiculous regulations.

They can make improper and even wicked exactions of their pupils.

Thus the writer has endeavoured to point out the defects of the present mode of Female Education, chiefly in order to shew that the great cause of these defects consists in a state of things in which Legislatures, undervaluing the great importance of women in society, neglect to provide for their education, and suffer it to become the sport of adventurers for fortune, who may be both ignorant and vicious.

Of the principles by which Education should be regulated.

To contemplate the principles which should regulate systems of instruction, and consider how little those principles have been regarded in educating our sex, will show the defects of female education in a still stronger point of light and will also afford a standard by which any plan for its improvement may be measured.

Education should seek to bring its subjects to the perfection of their moral, intellectual, and physical nature; in order that they may be of the greatest possible use to themselves and others, or, to use a different expression, that they may be the means of the greatest possible happiness of which they are capable, both as to what they enjoy and what they communicate.

Those youth have the surest chance of enjoying and communicating happiness who are best qualified both by internal dispositions and external habits, to perform with readiness, those duties which their future life will most probably give them occasion to practice.

Studies and employments should therefore be selected, from one or both of the following considerations; either because they are peculiarly fitted to improve the faculties; or because they are such as the pupil will most probably have occasion to practice in future life.

These are principles on which systems of male Education are founded, but female Education has not yet been systematized.—Chance and confusion reign here. Not even is youth considered in our sex, as in the other, a season which should be wholly devoted to improvement. Among families, so rich as to be entirely above labor, the daughters are hurried through the routine of boarding school institution and at an earlier period introduced into the gay world and thenceforth their own object is amusement. Mark the different treatment which the sons of these families receive. While their sisters are gliding through the mazes of the midnight dance they employ the lamp to treasure up for future use the riches of ancient wisdom; or to gather strength or expansion of mind in exploring the wonderful paths of philosophy. When the youth of the two sexes has been spent so differently, is it strange or is it nature in fault, if more mature age has brought such a difference of character that our sex have been considered by the other, as the pampered wayward babies of society who must have some rattle put into our hands to keep us from doing mischief to ourselves and others?

Another difference in the treatment of the sex is made in our country, which though not equally pernicious to society is more pathetically unjust to our sex. How often have we seen a student who returns from his literary pursuits, finds a sister who was his equal in acquirements, while their advantages were equal, of whom he is now ashamed. While his youth was devoted to study, and he was furnished with the means, she without any object of improvement, drudged at home to assist in the support of the father's family, and perhaps to contribute to her brothers subsistence abroad; and now, a being of a lower order, the rustic innocent wonders and weeps at his neglect. Not only has there been a want of system concerning female education, but much of what has been done has proceeded upon mistaken principles.

One of these is, that, without a regard to the different periods of life, proportionate to their importance the education of females has been too exclusively directed to fit them for displaying to advantage the charms of youth and beauty.—Tho' it may be proper to adorn this period of life yet it is incomparably more important to prepare for the serious duties of mature years. Tho' well to decorate the blossoms, it is far better to prepare for the harvest in the vegetable creation, nature seems but to sport, when she

embellishes the flower, while all her serious cares are directed to perfect the fruit.

Another error is, that it has been made the first object in educating our sex to prepare them to please the other. But reason and religion teach that we too are primary existences; that it is for us to move in the orbit of our duty around the holy centre of perfection, the companions, not the satellites of men; else instead of shedding around us an influence, that may help to keep them in their proper course, we must accompany them in their wildest deviations.

I would not be understood to insinuate that we are not, in particular situations, to yield obedience to the other sex. Submission and obedience belong to every being in the universe, except the great master of the whole. Nor is it a degrading peculiarity to our sex to be under human authority. Whenever one class of human beings derive from another the benefits of support and protection, they must pay its equivalent obedience. Thus while we receive these benefits from our parents we are all without distinction of sex, under their authority; when we receive them from the Government of our country we must obey our rulers; and when our sex take the obligation of marriage, and receive protection and support from the other, it is reasonable that we too should yield obedience. Yet is neither the child or the subject, nor the wife under human authority, but in observance to the divine.

Our highest responsibility is to God and our highest interest is to please Him; therefore to secure this interest, should our education be directed.

Neither would I be understood to mean that our sex should not seek to make themselves agreeable to the other. The error complained of is that the taste of men whatever it might happen to be has been made a standard for the formation of the Female character. In whatever we do it is of the most importance, that the rule by which we work should be perfect. For if otherwise what is it but to err upon principle? A system of education which leads one class of human beings to consider the approbation of another as their highest object, teaches that the rule of their conduct should be the will of beings imperfect and erring like themselves, rather than the will of God, which is the only standard of perfection.

Having now considered Female education both in theory and practice, and seen that in its present state it is in fact a thing "without form and void" the mind is naturally led to enquire after a remedy for the evil it has been contemplating.

Can individuals furnish this remedy? It has heretofore been left to them and we have seen the consequence. If education is a business which might naturally prosper if left to individual exertion, why have Legislatures intermeddled with it at all? If it is not, why do they make their daughters illegitimate, and bestow all their cares upon their sons.

It is the duty of a Government to do all in its power to promote the present and future prosperity of the nation over which it is placed. This prosperity will depend on the character of its citizens. The characters of these will be formed by their mothers, and it is through the mothers that the Government can

control the characters of its future citizens, to form them such as will ensure their country's prosperity. If this is the case, then it is the duty of our present Legislature to begin now to form the characters of the next generation by controlling that of the Females, who are to be their mothers, while it is yet with them a season of improvement.

But should the conclusion be almost admitted that our sex too are the legitimate children of the Legislature; and that it is their duty to afford us a share of their paternal bounty; the phantom of a College learned lady would be ready to rise up and destroy every good resolution, which the admission of this truth would naturally produce in our favor.—

To shew that it is not a masculine education that is here recommended and to afford a definite view of the manner in which a female institution might possess the respectability, permanency and uniformity of operation of those appropriated to males; and yet differ from them, so as to be adapted to that difference of character and duties to which the softer sex should be formed, is the object of the following imperfect

SKETCH OF A FEMALE SEMINARY.

From considering the deficiencies in Boarding Schools much may be learned, with regard to what would be needed, for the prosperity and usefulness of a public seminary for females.

1. There would be needed a building with commodious rooms for lodging and recitation, apartments for the reception of apparatus, and for the accommodation of the domestic department.

2. A library containing books on the various subjects in which the pupils were to receive instruction; musical instruments, some good paintings to form the taste and serve as models for the execution of those who were to be instructed in that art; maps, globes and a small collection of philosophical apparatus—

3. A judicious Board of trust competent and desirous to promote its interests, would in a female, as in a male literary institution be the corner stone of its prosperity.—On this board it would depend to provide,

4th. Suitable instruction. This article may be subdivided under four heads.

1. Religious and moral.
2. Literary.
3. Domestic.
4. Ornamental.

1. RELIGIOUS AND MORAL.—A regular attention to religious duties, would, of course be required of the Pupils by the laws of the Institution. The Trustees would be careful to appoint no instructors who would not teach religion and morality, both by their example and by leading the minds of the Pupils to perceive that these constitute the true end of all Education. It would be desirable that the young ladies should spend a part of their Sabbaths in hearing discourses relative to the peculiar duties of their sex. The evidences of Christianity and moral Philosophy would constitute a part of their studies.

2. LITERARY INSTRUCTION.—To make an exact enumeration of

the branches of literature, which might be taught would be impossible, unless the time of the pupils' continuance at the seminary, and the requisites for entrance were previously fixed. Such an enumeration would be tedious, nor do I conceive that it would be at all promotive of my object. The difficulty complained of is not that we are at a loss what sciences we ought to learn, but that we have not proper advantages to learn any. Many writers have given us excellent advice with regard to what we should be taught, but no Legislature has provided us the means of instruction. Not, however, to pass lightly over the fundamental part of education, I will mention one or two of the less obvious branches of science, which, I conceive should engage the youthful attention of my sex.

It is highly important that females should be conversant with those studies which will lead them to understand the operations of the human mind. The chief use to which the philosophy of the mind can be applied, is to regulate education by its rules. The ductile mind of the child is entrusted to the mother; and she ought to obtain every possible assistance, in acquiring a knowledge of this noble material, on which it is her business to operate, that she may best understand how to mould it to its most excellent form.

Natural Philosophy has not often been taught to our sex. Yet why should we be kept in ignorance of the great machinery of nature, and left to the vulgar notion that nothing is curious but what deviates from her common course? If mothers were acquainted with this science they would communicate very many of its principles to its children in early youth.

From the bursting of an egg buried in the fire, I have heard an intelligent mother lead her prattling enquirer to understand the cause of the earthquake. But how often does the mother from ignorance on this subject, give her child the most erroneous and contracted views of the causes of natural phenomena; views, which, though they may afterwards learn to be false, are yet from the laws of association, ever ready to return, unless the active powers of the mind are continually upon the alert to keep them out. A knowledge of natural philosophy is calculated to heighten the moral taste, by bringing to view the majesty and beauty of order and design; and to enliven piety, by enabling the mind more clearly to perceive throughout, the manifold works of God, that wisdom, in which he hath made them all.

In some of the sciences proper for our sex, the books written for the other would need alteration; because in some they presuppose more knowledge than female pupils would possess; in others, they have parts not particularly interesting to our sex, and omit subjects immediately relating to their pursuits. There would likewise be needed for a female seminary some works, which I believe are nowhere extant, such as a systematic treatise on housewifery.

3. DOMESTIC INSTRUCTION—Should be considered important in a female seminary. It is the duty of our sex to regulate the internal concerns of every family, and unless they be properly qualified to discharge this duty, whatever may be their literary or ornamental attainments, they cannot be expected to make either good wives, good mothers, or good mistresses of families; and, if they are none of these they must be bad members of society; for it is by promoting or destroying the comfort and prosperity of their own families, that females serve or injure the community.

To superintend the domestic department, there should be a respectable lady, experienced in the best methods of housewifery, and acquainted with propriety of dress and manners. Under her tuition the pupils ought to be placed for a certain length of time every morning. A spirit of neatness and order should here be treated as a virtue, and the contrary if excessive and incorrigible, be punished with expulsion. There might be a gradation of employment in the domestic department, according to the length of time the pupils had remained at the institution. The older scholars might then assist the superintendent in instructing the younger, and the whole be so arranged, that each pupil might have advantages to become a good domestic manager by the time she has completed her studies.

This plan would afford a healthy exercise. It would prevent that estrangement from domestic duties, which would be likely to take place in a length of time devoted to study, with those to whom they were previously familiar; and would accustom those to them, who, from ignorance might otherwise put at hazard their own happiness and the prosperity of their families.

These objects might doubtless be effected by a scheme of domestic instruction; and probably others of no inconsiderable importance. It is believed that housewifery might be greatly improved by being taught not only in practice but in theory. Why may it not be reduced to a system as well as other arts?—There are right ways of performing its various operations; and there are reasons why those ways are right; and why may not rules be formed, their reasons collected; and the whole be digested into a system to guide the learner's practice?

It is obvious that theory alone can never make a good artist; and it is equally obvious, that practice unaided by theory, can never correct errors, but must establish them. If I should perform any thing in a wrong manner all my life, and teach my children to perform it in the same manner, still through my life and theirs it would be wrong. Without alteration there can be no improvement; but how are we to alter so as to improve, if we are ignorant of the principles of our art with which we should compare our practice, and by which we should regulate it?

In the present state of things it is not to be expected, that any material improvements in housewifery should be made. There being no uniformity of method prevailing among different housewives, of course the communications from one to another are not much more likely to improve the art than a communication between two mechanics of different trades, would be to improve each in his respective occupation. But should a system of principles be philosophically arranged, and taught both in theory and by practice, to a large number of females whose minds were expanded and strengthened by a course of literary instruction, those among them of an investigating turn, would, when they commenced house-keepers, consider their domestic operations as a series of experiments, which either proved or refuted the system previously taught. They would then converse together like those who practice a common art, and improve each other by their observations and experiments; and they would also be capable of improving the system by detecting its errors, and by making additions of new principles and better modes of practice.

4. *The ornamental branches* which I should recommend for a female seminary, are drawing and painting, elegant penmanship, music and the grace of motion,—Needlework is not here mentioned.—The best style of useful needlework should either be taught in the domestic department or made a qualification for entrance : and I consider that useful which may contribute to the decoration of a ladies' person, or the convenience and neatness of her family.—But the use of the needle for other purposes than these, as it affords little to assist in the formation of the character, I should regard as a waste of time.

The grace of motion must be learned chiefly from instruction in dancing. Other advantages besides that of a graceful carriage, might be derived from such instruction, if the lessons were judiciously timed. Exercise is needful to the health, and recreation to the cheerfulness and contentment of youth. Female youth could not be allowed to range unrestrained to seek amusement for themselves. If it was entirely prohibited, they would be driven to seek it by stealth, which would lead them to many improprieties of conduct and would have a pernicious effect upon their general character, by inducing a habit of treading forbidden paths, the alternative that remains is to provide them with proper recreation, which, after the confinement of the day, they might enjoy under the eye of their instructors.—Dancing is exactly suited to this purpose as also to that of exercise ; for perhaps in no way, can so much healthy exercise be taken in so short a time. It has besides this advantage over other amusements, that it affords nothing to excite the bad passions, but on the contrary its effects are to soften the mind, to banish its animosities, and to open its social impressions.

It may be said that dancing would dissipate the attention and estrange it from study.—Balls would, doubtless, have this effect ; but let dancing be practised every day, by youth of the same sex, without change of place, dress, or company, and under the eye of those, whom they are accustomed to obey, and it would excite no more emotion than any other exercise or amusement, but in degree as it is of itself more pleasant.—But it must ever be a grateful exercise to youth, as it is one, to which nature herself prompts them, at the sound of animating music.

It has been doubted whether painting and music should be taught to young ladies, because much time is requisite to bring them to any considerable degree of perfection, and they are not immediately useful. Though these objections have weight, yet they are founded on too limited a view of the objects of education. They leave out the important consideration of forming the character. I should not consider it an essential point that the music of a lady's piano should rival that of her master's ; or that her drawing room should be decorated with her own paintings rather than those of others, but it is the intrinsic advantage which she might derive from the refinement of herself that would induce me to recommend to her an attention to these elegant pursuits. The harmony of sound, has a tendency to produce a correspondent harmony of soul ; and that art which obliges us to study nature, in order to imitate her, often enkindles the latent spark of taste,—of sensibility for her beauties, till it glows to adoration for their author, and a refined love of all his works.

5. There would be needed for a female, as well as for a male seminary a system of laws and regulations so arranged that both the instructors and the pupils would know their duty ; and thus the whole business move with regularity and uniformity.

The laws of the institution would be chiefly directed to regulate the pupil's qualifications for entrance, the kind and order of their studies, their behaviour while at the institution, the term allotted for the completion of their studies, the punishments to be inflicted on offenders, and the rewards or honors to be bestowed on the virtuous and diligent.

The direct rewards or honors used to stimulate the ambition of students in colleges are first, the certificate or diploma, which each receives who passes successfully through the term allotted to his collegiate studies ; and secondly the appointments to perform certain parts in public exhibitions, which are bestowed by the faculty, as rewards for superior scholarship. The first of these modes is admissible into a female seminary ; the second is not ; as public speaking forms no part of female education. The want of this mode might, however, be supplied by examinations judiciously conducted. The leisure and inclination of both instructors and scholars, would combine to produce a thorough preparation for these ; for neither would have any other public test of the success of their labors. Persons of both sexes would attend. The less entertaining parts might be enlivened by interludes where the pupils in painting and music would display their several improvements. Such examinations would stimulate the instructors to give their scholars more attention, by which the leading facts and principles of their studies would be more clearly understood and better remembered. The ambition excited among the pupils would operate without placing the instructors under the necessity of making distinctions among them, which are so apt to be considered as invidious, and which are in our male seminaries, such fruitful sources of disaffection. Perhaps the term allotted for the routine of study at the seminary, might be three years, the pupils probably would not be fitted to enter till about the age of 14. Whether they attended to all or any of the ornamental branches, should be left optional with the parents or guardians. Those who were to be instructed in them, should be entered for a longer term, but if this was a subject of previous calculation no confusion should arise from it. The routine of the exercises being established by the laws of the institution, would be uniform and publicly known, and those who were previously acquainted with the branches first taught, might enter the highest classes ; nor would those who entered the lowest be obliged to remain during the three years. Thus the term of remaining at the institution, might be either one, two, three, four or more years ; and that without interfering with the regularity and uniformity of its proceedings.

The writer has now given a sketch of her plan. She has by no means expressed all the ideas which occurred to her concerning it ; she wished to be as concise as possible, and yet afford conviction that it is practicable to organize a system of Female Education, which shall possess the permanency, uniformity of operation, and respectability of our male institutions ; and yet

differ from them, so as to be adapted to that difference of character and duties to which early instruction should form the softer sex.

It now remains to enquire more particularly what would be the benefits resulting from such a system.



BENIFITS OF FEMALE SEMINARIES.

In enquiring concerning the benefits of the plan proposed, I shall proceed upon the supposition that female seminaries will be presented throughout our country.

Nor is this altogether a visionary supposition if one seminary should be well organized its advantages would be found so great, that others would soon be instituted, and that sufficient patronage can be found to put one in operation, may be presumed from its reasonableness, and from the public opinion with regard to the present mode of female Education. It is from an intimate acquaintance with those parts of our country, where education is said to flourish most, that the writer has drawn her picture of the present state of female instruction, and she knows, that she is not alone in perceiving or deploring its faults. Her sentiments are shared by many an enlightened parent of a daughter, who has received a boarding school education. Counting on the promise of her childhood, the Father had anticipated her maturity as combining what is excellent in mind with what is elegant in manners. He spared no expense that education might realize to him, the image of his imagination. His daughter returned from her boarding school, improved with fashionable airs and expert in manufacturing fashionable toys; but in her conversation, he sought in vain for that refined and fertile mind, which he had fondly expected. Aware that his disappointment has its source in a defective education he looks with anxiety on his other daughters whose minds, like lovely buds, are beginning to open. Where shall he find a genial soil in which he may place them to expand? Shall he provide them male instructors? Then the graces of their persons and manners and whatever forms the distinguishing charm of the feminine character, they cannot be expected to acquire. Shall he give them a private Tutoress? She will have been educated at the boarding school, and his daughters will have the faults of its instruction second handed. Such is now the dilemma of many parents; and it is one from which they cannot be extricated by their individual exertions. May not then the only plan which promises to relieve them expect their vigorous support.

Let us now proceed to enquire what benefits would result from the establishment of female seminaries.

They would constitute a grade of public education superior to any yet known in the history of our sex; and through them, the lower grades of female instruction might be controlled. The influence of public seminaries over these, would operate in two ways; first by requiring certain qualifications for entrance, and secondly by furnishing instructresses initiated in their modes of teaching and imbued with their maxims.

Female seminaries might be expected to have important and happy effects on common schools in general, and in the manner of operating on these would probably place the business of teaching children in hands now nearly useless to society; and take it from those whose services the state wants in many other ways.

That nature designed for our sex the care of children, she has made manifest by mental as well as physical indications. She has given us in a greater degree than men the gentle arts of insinuation, to soften their minds and fit them to receive impressions, a greater quickness of invention to vary modes of teaching to different dispositions; and more patience to make repeated efforts. There are many females of ability to whom the business of instructing children is highly acceptable and who would devote all their faculties to their occupation. They would have no higher pecuniary object to engage their attention and their reputation as instructors they would consider as important; whereas, whenever able and enterprising men engage in this business they consider it merely as a temporary employment to further some other object, to the attainment of which their best thoughts and calculations are all directed. If then women were properly fitted by instruction, they would be likely to teach children better than the other sex; they could afford to do it cheaper; and those men who would otherwise be engaged in the employment, might be at liberty to add to the wealth of the nation by any of those thousand occupations, from which women are necessarily debarred.

But the females who taught children would have been themselves instructed either immediately or indirectly by the seminaries. Hence through these the Government might exercise an intimate and most beneficial control over the common schools.— Any one who has turned his attention to this subject must be aware that there is great room for improvement in these, both as to the modes of teaching and the things taught, and what method could be devised so likely to effect this improvement, as to prepare by instruction a class of individuals, whose interest, leisure, and natural talents would combine to make them pursue it with ardour. Such a class of individuals would be raised up by female Seminaries. And therefore they would be likely to have highly important and happy effects on common schools.

It is believed that such institutions, would tend to prolong or perpetuate our excellent Government.

An opinion too generally prevails, that our present form of government though good cannot be permanent, other republicks have failed and the historian and philosopher have told us, that nations are like individuals; that at their birth they receive the seeds of their decline and dissolution. Here deceived by a false analogy, we receive an apt illustration of particular facts, for a general truth. The existence of nations cannot in strictness be compared with the duration of animate life; for by the operation of physical causes this, after a certain length of time, must cease; but the existence of nations, is prolonged by the succession of one generation to another, and there is no physical cause to prevent this succession going on in a peaceable manner under a good government till the end of time. We must then look to other causes than necessity for the decline and fall of former republicks. If we could discover these causes and seasonably prevent their operation, then

might our latest posterity enjoy the same happy government with which we are blessed ; or if but in part, then might the triumphs of tyranny, be delayed, and a few more generations be free.

Permit me then to ask the enlightened politician of my country whether amidst his researches for these causes he cannot discover one, in the neglect which free governments in common with others have shewn, to whatever regarded the formation of the female character.

In these great Republicks which have fallen off themselves, the loss of republican manners and virtues has been the invariable precursor, of their loss of the republican form of government. But is it not in the power of our sex to give society its tone, both as to manners and morals ? And if such is the extent of female influence, it is wonderful that republicks have failed when they calmly suffered that influence to become enlisted in favor of luxuries and follies wholly incompatible with the existence of freedom.

It may be said that the deprivation of morals and manners, can be traced to the introduction of wealth as its cause. But wealth will be introduced ; even the iron laws of Lycurgus could not prevent it. Let us then inquire if means may not be devised to prevent its bringing with it the destruction of public virtue, may not these means be found in education ?—In implanting in early youth habits that may counteract the temptations to which, through the influence of wealth, mature age will be exposed ? and in giving strength and expansion to the mind, that it may comprehend and prize those principles, which teach the rigid performance of duty ? Education it may be said has been tried as a preservative of national purity. But was it applied to every exposed part of the body politic ? For if any part has been left within the pestilential atmosphere of wealth without this preservative, then that part becoming corrupted would communicate the contagion to the whole ; and if so then has the experiment whether education may not preserve purity, never yet been fairly tried. Such a part has been left in all former experiments. Females have been exposed to the contagion of wealth without the preservation of a good education, they constitute that part of the body politic least endowed by nature to resist, most to communicate it.—Nay not merely have they been left without the defence of a good Education, but their corruption has been accelerated by a bad one. The character of women of rank and wealth has been and in the old governments of Europe now is all that this statement would lead us to expect. Not content with doing nothing to promote their country's welfare, like pampered children they revel in its prosperity, and scatter it to the winds with a wanton profusion ; and still worse—they empoison its source by diffusing a contempt for useful labor. To court pleasure their business, within her temple in defiance of the laws of God and man they have erected the idol fashion, and upon her altar they sacrifice, with shameless rites, whatever is sacred to virtue or religion. Not the strongest ties of nature—not even maternal love can restrain them ! Like the worshipper of Moloch, the mother while yet yearning over the new born babe, tears it from the bosom which God has swelled with nutrition for its support, and casts it remorseless from her, the victim of her unhallowed devotion.

But while, with an anguished heart, I thus depict the crimes of my sex, let not the other stand by and smile. Reason declares that you are guiltier than we. You are our natural guardians,—

our brothers—our fathers and our rulers. You know that our ductile minds readily take the impressions of Education. Why then have you neglected our Education? Why have you looked with lethargic indifference, on circumstances ruinous to the formation of our characters, which you might have controlled?

But it may be said the observations here made, cannot be applied to any class of females in our country. True they cannot yet; and if they could it would be useless to make them; for when the families of any country have become thus debased, then is that country so corrupted that nothing but the awful judgments of Heaven can arrest its career of vice. But it cannot be denied that our manners are verging towards those described, and the change, tho' gradual, has not been slow; already do our daughters listen with surprise when we tell them of the republican simplicity of our mothers. But our manners are not as yet so altered, but that throughout our country they are still marked with republican virtues.

The inquiry to which these remarks have conducted us is this—What is afforded by the plan of female education, here proposed, which may teach or preserve among females of wealthy families, that purity of manners which is allowed to be so essential to national prosperity, and so necessary to the existence of a republican government.

1. Females by having their understandings cultivated, their reasoning powers developed and strengthened, may be expected to act more from the dictates of reason and less from those of fashion and caprice.

2. With minds thus strengthened they would be taught systems of morality enforced by the sanctions of religion; and they might be expected to acquire juster and more enlarged views of their duty and stronger and higher motives to its performance.

3. This plan of education offers all that can be done to preserve female youth from a contempt of useful labor. The pupils would become accustomed to it in conjunction with the high objects of literature, and the elegant pursuits of the fine arts, and it is to be hoped that both from habit and association, they might in future life regard it as respectable.

To this it may be added that if housewifery could be raised to a regular art, and taught upon philosophical principles, it would become a higher and more interesting occupation, and ladies of fortune, like wealthy agriculturists, might find, that to regulate their business was an agreeable employment.

4. The pupils might be expected to acquire a taste for moral and intellectual pleasures which would buoy them above a passion for show and parade, and which would make them seek to gratify the natural love of superiority by endeavoring to excel others in intrinsic merit rather than in the extrinsic frivolties of dress, furniture, and equipage.

5. By being enlightened in moral philosophy, and in that which teaches the operations of the mind, females would be enabled to perceive the nature and extent of that influence which they possess over their children, and the obligation which this lays them under to watch the formation of their characters with unceasing vigilance to become their instructors, to devise plans for their improvement, to weed out the vices from their minds, and to implant and foster the virtues. And surely there is that in the maternal bosom which when its pleadings should be aided by education,

will overcome the seductions of wealth and fashion, and will lead the mother to seek her happiness in communing with her children and promoting their welfare, rather than in a heartless intercourse with the votaries of pleasure ; especially when, with an expanded mind, she extends her views to futurity, and sees her care to her offspring rewarded by peace of conscience, the blessings of her family, the prosperity of her country, and finally with everlasting happiness to herself and them.

Thus laudable objects and employments would be furnished for the great body of females who are not kept by poverty from excesses. But among these as among the other sex, will be found master spirits who must have pre-eminence at whatever price they acquire it. Domestic life cannot hold these because they prefer to be infamous, rather than obscure. To leave such without any various road to eminence, is unsafe to community ; for not unfrequently are the secret springs of revolution set in motion by their intrigues. Such aspiring we will regulate by education ; we will remove obstructions to the course of literature, which has heretofore been their only honorable way to distinction ; and we offer them a new object, worthy of their ambition ; to govern and improve the seminaries for their sex.

In calling on my patriotic countrymen to effect so noble an object, the consideration of national glory should not be overlooked. Ages have rolled away ;—barbarians have trodden the weaker sex beneath their feet ;—tyrants have robbed us of the present light of heaven, and feign would take its future. Nations, calling themselves polite, have made us the fancied idols of a ridiculous worship, and we have repaid them with ruin for their folly. But where is that wise and heroic country which has considered that our rights are sacred, though we cannot defend them ? That though a weaker, we are an essential part of the body politic, whose corruption or improvement must effect the whole ? And which having thus considered, has sought to give us by education, that rank in the scale of being to which our importance entitles us ? History shews not that country. It shews many whose Legislatures have sought to improve their various vegetable productions, and their breed of useful brutes ; but none whose public councils have made it an object of their deliberations to improve the character of their women. Yet though History lifts not her finger to such an one, anticipation does—she points to a nation, which, having thrown off the shackles of authority and precedent, shrinks not from schemes of improvement because other nations have never attempted them, but which in its pride of independence, would rather lead than follow in the march of human improvement. A nation wise and magnanimous to plan ; enterprising to undertake—and rich in resources to execute. Does not every American exult that this country is his own ? And who knows how great and good a race of men may yet arise from the forming hand of mothers, enlightened by the bounty of that beloved country,—to defend her liberties,—to plan her future improvement,—and to raise her to unparalleled glory ?

EXTRACTS FROM PROFESSOR EATON'S WORKS.

The Rensselaer Institute may be considered as the *common workshop* for all Colleges, Academies, and other literary and sci-

entific Seminaries of learning. It is truly a school of *scientific manual* labor.

1. The most distinctive character in the plan of the school consists in giving *the Pupil, the place of teacher in all his exercises*. From schools or colleges where the higher branches are taught to the common village schools. The teacher always improves himself more than he does his pupils. Being under the necessity of relying upon his own resource, and of making every subject his own, he becomes an adept as a matter of necessity.—Taking advantage of this principle, students of Rensselaer Institute *learn*, by giving experimental and demonstrative lectures.

2. In every branch of learning the pupil begins with its practical application, and is introduced to a knowledge of elementary principles from time to time, as his progress requires. After visiting a bleaching factory, he returns to the laboratory and produces chlorine gas and experiments upon it, until he is familiar with all the elementary principles appertaining to that curious substance. After seeing the process of tanning, he enters the laboratory with most ardent zeal for a knowledge of the principles upon which the tanner's operations depend.—He can now apply the experiment for making an insoluble precipitate tanning and animal gelatin, also the soapy compound of animal oil and an alkaline earth, &c. After seeing buhr mill-stones consolidated by a gypsum cement, he is anxious to try the experiment of disengaging the water of combination in the gypsum, to absorb the effect of re-absorption. By this method a strong desire to study an elementary principle is excited, by bringing his labors to a point where he perceives the necessity of it, and its direct application to a useful purpose.

3. Corporeal exercise is not only necessary for the health of students, but for qualifying them for the business of life. When such exercises are chosen by students they are not always judiciously selected. Such exercises as running, jumping, climbing, scuffling and the like, are calculated to detract from that dignity of deportment and carriage, which becomes a man of science.—Therefore a system of exercises is adopted at this school, which, while it improves the health, also improves the mind, and excludes those vulgarisms, which too often become habitual among students. Such exercises as land-surveying, general engineering, collecting and preserving specimens in botany, mineralogy, zoology, examining work-shops and factories, watching the progress of agricultural operations, making experiments upon nutritious matters proper for vegetables, &c. are made the duties of students as afternoon amusements.

These principles have now been practically applied for nine years, to the full satisfaction of the patron and trustees.

The learned of both continents seem to have been simultaneously impressed with the importance of a change in the system of education. The common routine, which has held the human mind in a state of abject servitude for ages, can be no longer tolerated. The aspiring energies of youth had been chained down to a kind of literary bondage, and genius had been jaded and fatigued like a beast of burden. The student spent many years in studying hard names, and a routine of rules, whose applications he was not permitted to know. His ardent curiosity was checked

in embryo, and his studies were directed by the rod in early years, and by fines, admonitions, rustications, and expulsions, in his approach to manhood.

A method was loudly demanded which should be adapted to the native curiosity and ardor of youth,—a method which should put in requisition all the strong faculties, and which should enliven, not depress, the ardor of genius.

Rosseau's scheme of education, by first awakening and then gratifying curiosity, appeared to be just. That the student should see every branch of human learning practically applied, and should be presented with the object of each branch at his first entrance upon it, became the general opinion. For example, that in learning land surveying, the student should be first taken into the field and then shewn how to use the compass and chain, then to plot his survey and to measure the superficial areas. That mathematical rules should be explained to him from time to time as his own progressive operations demanded; but that he should not be made to plod through a discouraging set of abstract rules, ignorant of their uses and of the principles upon which they are founded. Having thus become familiar with the objects of his study, he will pursue with a zeal bordering on enthusiasm, all that part of mathematical studies which is connected with land surveying. In the same manner all the energies of his mind may be successfully excited in the study of mensuration, of astronomy, of natural philosophy, of chemistry, of natural history, and in truth of every department of human learning.

Though all agreed in the object to be effected, there was, and still is, much diversity of opinion respecting the most advisable course to be adopted in detail. A scheme appears eligible on paper, if drawn up by a lively fancy which fails when an application is attempted;—and unfortunately, even the improvement of the youthful mind became a subject of miserly speculation; and many new schools were set up and presented to the public with all the fulsome boasting of patent medicine. These mushroom institutions had a tendency to dampen public zeal, which if rightly directed would most effectually ameliorate the condition of man. But when parents have spent their hundreds at these much famed schools, and have been subject to the distressing reality that their children's stock of useful knowledge was improved but little, and that their morals were often degenerated, they were very naturally disposed to fall back upon the old system of education.

One of the greatest impediments in the way of success is that a great proportion of our best citizens are not aware that the human mind, like the body, has a limit to its strength. consequently it is an easy task to inculcate a general belief that the school is best which proposes the largest number of studies. As far as this opinion prevails no progress can be made in improving the course of education. This is one of the worst evils of the old schools; the mind is distracted among a multitude of objects and succeeds in nothing.

It is not pretended that the Rensselaerean plan will correct all the evils complained of, nor that the object proposed is wholly compassed by it, but this school was not set up for the sake of

the school itself. Most schools are successful when they obtain patronage, even at the expense of other schools. This school is successful when it causes *other schools* to improve their mode of instruction so that they may become more useful to the community. The objects of the patron of this school are effected by the successful application of its principles at any place on either continent. Its pupils are now applying its principles from Georgia to Canada; and as far as they succeed, so far this school has prospered in the object of its establishment. That its general object is approved is evident from the fact that the school does not furnish *competent* instructors sufficient for one-half of the applications received from respectable Villages, Academies, &c.

On the 5th of November, 1824, the Honorable Steven Van Rensselaer wrote a letter to the Rev. Dr. Blatchford, requesting him to open this school on the first Monday of January, 1825, and take charge of it as President. In the same letter he appointed Amos Eaton, senior Professor, and Lewis C. Beck, junior Professor. He appointed a Board of Trustees also, with ten articles or orders for the temporary government of the school. In this letter he stated that the school was instituted for the purpose of giving instruction "in the application of science to the common purposes of life," and that his principal object was to "qualify teachers for instructing the sons and daughters of farmers and mechanics in the application of experimental chemistry, philosophy, and natural history, to agriculture, domestic economy, the arts and manufactures." He added—"from the trials which have been made by persons in my employment during the last summer, I am inclined to believe that competent instructors may be produced in the school at Troy, who will be highly useful in diffusing knowledge with its application to the business of living. It seems to comport better with the habits of our citizens and the genius of our Government to place the advantages of useful improvements equally within the reach of all. Whether my expectations will be realized or not, I am willing to hazard the necessary expense of making the trial."—In obedience to this request, Dr. Blatchford and Professor Beck devoted much of their attention, and Professor Eaton the whole of his time and attention to experiments upon the minds of young men who were above the age of seventeen years. Professor Eaton has continued his exertions nine years; but Dr. Blatchford and Professor Beck have been succeeded by others.

On the 29th December, 1824, the Board of Trustees was called together by the President. At this meeting the name "Rensselaer school" was given to the institution; and at this and two following meetings (March the 11th and June 5th, 1825,) a code of bye-laws was adopted, and Mr. Van Rensselaer's letter was adopted as the constitution.

The school went into operation on the first Wednesday in January, 1825. After a series of successful trials for about fourteen months it was incorporated.

DUTIES AND EXERCISES
OF THE
RENSSELAER INSTITUTE,
CONDENSED FROM THE STATUTES, BY-LAWS, ORDERS OF THE FACULTY, AND ESTABLISHED USAGES.

DUTIES OF ACTING OFFICERS.

1st. The President, or (if absent from the City of Troy) a resident Vice President, should supervise the whole course of instruction. He should see that the professors and other teachers perform their respective duties faithfully—that the morals of students are well guarded and preserved—that no amusements or practices of an immoral tendency be admitted—that a due degree of energy be maintained in all the departments of learning. Finally he is bound by his acceptance, (though it is not a pay office) to keep a watchful eye upon whatever may affect the education and discipline of the institution.

2nd. THE PRUDENTIAL COMMITTEE should supervise whatever concerns the conveniencies, the property, and expenses of the school. They should endeavor to accommodate the school in the use of the library, apparatus, cabinets of specimens, &c.; but so to order their use as to guard against all waste and negligence, and by all reasonable restrictions to preserve the property of the school. They should endeavor to guard against burdening students, parents, and guardians, with unnecessary expenses; they are required by law duly to consider the expediency and in expediency of establishing a bill of fare, boarding house, where plain board of enumerated articles of food can be had at a very low price. Also to consider the expediency and in expediency of providing manual labor at the various trades in Troy, where students may pay for board for a definite number of hours labor in each afternoon. Finally they are invested with the full powers of the whole board of trustees from one sitting of the board to another. And though they receive no compensation for their services, duty requires of them frequent visits at the school, and frequent and careful examinations into whatever appertains to their department.

3rd. THE SENIOR PROFESSOR AND AGENT.—During the nine years in which the Institution has been in operation, these two offices have been united; though their union is not required by law. The two offices conjoined constitute a kind of executive officer for carrying into operation the commands of the Patron, President, Trustees, and Prudential Committee. He is always to reside at the institute, and he receives all students into the two departments, and judges of their qualifications for admission; he directs all the immediate teachers, he arranges the students into sections, directs the whole course of studies, and decides in all cases of duty which are not definitely settled by law. But any of his acts may be annulled or varied by the President or resident Vice President. Any teacher or student may appeal to these, his superior officers, from his decisions.

He directs in the use of the Library, Apparatus, Specimens, &c.—but any student may appeal from his orders to the prudential

committee, who are the proper guardians in the use of the property of the institution. He receipts all moneys paid to the school under the signature of the agent for the institute ; for which he is obliged to account to the Treasurer when required. The property of the Institution being under his charge he has the right and it is his duty to defend it as in cases of private property.

As senior professor he is required to give instruction to the teachers and students in every department of learning taught at the Institution ; but he is never to be confined to any one division or to one room,—he is to visit every department daily, and make himself acquainted with the character, talents, and application of each student. He is to give about four lectures each week before all the students of the Institute ; and his whole annual course of about one hundred and sixty lectures shall present in regular succession, Mathematics, Rhetoric, Logic, the general principles of national and municipal Law, Geology, Mineralogy, Botany, Zoology, Chemistry, and Mechanical Philosophy. All his lectures shall be fully illustrated with mathematical instruments, cited cases, specimens, apparatus, and experiments.

4th. THE JUNIOR PROFESSOR is to perform all the duties of the senior Professor in case of absence or sickness, and the prudential committee may make arrangements with him to give instruction perpetually at the Institution on definite subjects.

5th. AN ADJUNCT PROFESSOR is to perform all the duties of the Professorship to which he is attached ; and assist in teaching according to the directions of an acting Professor or President.

6th. AN ASSISTANT PROFESSOR is to assist in teaching as directed by the Professors or President. In case of the absence of all his superior officers he shall have the power and perform the duties of Professor.

7th. A SPECIAL ASSISTANT is to perform the duties especially assigned to him until the termination of his appointment, and for the time being is to be obeyed and respected by the students.

8th. A MONITOR (usually called the officer of the day) is to ring the bell at sun rise and again at 20 minutes. He is to examine the students at five minutes after the second bell, or get a teacher to do it ;—he is to give the first lecture in his own division—to notify the Professor of his time to lecture and to criticise. He may excuse from lecturing on good reasons—he may give short leave of absence—he must report all defaulters—he shall ring the bell to convene the students to receive orders for the afternoon—at 2 o'clock he shall give the Professor a list of the names of all who go out in the afternoon, with their respective employments—he shall sweep out all the lecture rooms on the evening of his day, and shall enforce cleanliness in the public rooms—he shall be obeyed and respected for the time being, according to the by-law respecting assistants.

ROUTINE OF EXERCISES.

1. *Sabbath morning*.—One hour's examination on sacred history.
2. *Religious Worship*.—Every student must attend religious worship on the sabbath ; but he is not restricted to any denomination.
3. *Monday morning*.—One hour's examination in moral philosophy and the philosophy of the human mind.

4. *Common morning Examination.*—On all days excepting Sundays and Mondays, an examination on the subjects of the students' lectures of the preceding day.

5. *Forenoon exercises.*—After morning examination each student shall give an extemporaneous lecture. These lectures, followed by criticisms, continue until one o'clock, P. M., excepting Saturdays.

6. *Afternoon exercises.*—Students are to be called together at 2 P. M. daily, and distributed into groups for their respective exercises; an account of their due execution of the duties assigned them has to be rendered at the next morning examination. The afternoon exercises consist in surveying, engineering, mensuration, taking latitude and longitude, height and distances, collecting and analyzing specimens in mineralogy, geology, and zoology—calculating water pressure, the power of machinery, &c. But the most important duty is that of preparing next day's lecture.

7. *Parliamentary exercises* shall be attended one evening in each week. Every student shall conduct himself thereat according to our national parliamentary rules.

8. *The Library* is to be always placed in a reading room to which students may have access from sunrise to sunset, according to the rules of rotation to be prescribed by the faculty. No ink, or pen which has been dipped in ink, shall be in the limits of the reading room. No book shall be taken out of the library except in case of necessity, to be determined by the oldest member of the faculty present at the institution—and in such case it shall not remain out exceeding six days.

But the oldest Professor may order books out to aid in preparing text books or manuscript note books, &c. for the use of the Institution.

9. *When a student is giving a lecture*, he shall have two auditors at least, to be appointed in rotation, who shall be critically attentive to him. Others who are in the room shall not speak aloud, nor make any disturbance or noise; but they will not be under obligation to listen to the lecture, except to a monitor or teacher.

10. *No student shall scuffle* nor put his hand on another in sport, nor throw any stone or other missile, nor do any act of violence, nor any ungentlemanly act, within the yard or lot occupied by or attached to the Institution.

11. *No student shall litter* or strew over any part of the road, yard, or building, with plants, minerals, or any other thing whatever, which shall give any uncleanly appearance. No minerals shall be carried into any room above the cellar or basement, excepting a single suit for instruction to be neatly put up in cases, and then first to be inspected by the senior Professor; and no student shall ever drive a nail, peg, &c. into any wall, nor attach anything to it, nor sever anything from it, without permission from the senior Professor.

12. *Examination* for the Rensselaer degrees takes place in October annually, at the end of 24 weeks after the last Wednesday in April. The examiners are appointed by the Patron. They are always selected from among gentlemen of talents and learning who have no connexion with the Institution. No Professor or other Teacher is permitted to give any opinion on the subject of the qualification of any candidate;—and no student ever knows the part on which he is to be examined until he is called

on by the examiners. No one can be a candidate unless he has devoted at least one full year to classical learning; and at least 24 weeks to experimental and demonstrative chemistry, mechanical philosophy, natural history, and practical surveying and engineering. This is necessary for the degree of A. B. (r. s.), and another full year is necessary for the degree of A. M. (r. s.)

13. *Course of Studies in the Experimental Department.*

1. *Practical Mathematics*, including surveying, engineering, hydraulics, machinery, navigation, latitude and longitude, &c. &c. from the 3rd Wednesday in November, 12 weeks.

2. *Discipline in extemporaneous Speaking*. The subjects used are rhetoric, logic, geology, applied to physical geography, and history applied to civil geography, 4 weeks.

3. *Natural History*, including botany, geology, mineralogy, and zoology. In this course organic chemistry and vegetable and animal physiology are studied with a full course of experiments with tests, solar microscope, &c. But one week is occupied at the beginning with botany. Each student collects every species in flower within five miles, names and preserves plants, until the first Wednesday in July; but he does this as an afternoon amusement. However he is hereafter to exhibit his collection to the examiners as his own property, and give evidence of his knowledge of it. From the first Wednesday in July until the commencement of the chemical course, he lectures on vegetable affinities and philosophy,—from the last Wednesday in April, 12 weeks.

4. *Chemistry and Mechanical Philosophy* occupy the forenoon of five days in each week for the last 12 weeks of the year, beginning 12 weeks after the last Wednesday in April. Surveying, engineering, collecting and analyzing plants, and preparing for the next day's experiments and lectures occupying the forenoons, 12 weeks.

5. *Chemical and Philosophical* substances consumed are furnished by the student; also light articles of glass ware, &c.—The Institution furnishes the following articles, only for students.

Lecture rooms sufficient for the plan of education.

A reading room containing a choice collection of scientific books, maps, and globes.

A natural history room, furnished with collections of minerals, fossil relics, plants, animals, a goniometer, balance, blow-pipe, and tests.

A *Philosophy and Mathematical Room* furnished with an air-pump, a forcing-pump, barometers, thermometers, pluviometer, solar-microscope, megascope, standing microscope, magic lantern, telescope, lenses convex and concave, mirrors, prisms, electrical machine, galvanic battery electro, magnetic instrument, magnets, sextant, mechanical powers, black boards, hydrostatic bellows, hydrostatic and hydraulic cylinders and tubes, hydrometers, glass pumps, 3 sets of surveying instruments, level, quadrant, and levelling pole.

Three laboratories, one for all simple principles excepting metalloids and metals,—two for the metalloids and metals,—three for analyzing animal waters and soils. These rooms are furnish-

ed with the necessary forges, furnaces, bellows, lead pots, Argand's lamps, common lamps, sufficient coal and oil, tables, counters, seats, iron retorts, or gun barrels for gasses, anvils, anvil hammers, cisterns, pipes for conducting gasses from the barrels, gass pistol, iron stand, iron mortar, and mercurial bath. All breakage, waste of mercury or any other injury done to apparatus, is charged to the section using them, unless the individual is known who committed the act.

13. *Boarding and Lodging*, are taken at any place, at the option of the guardian or student. Price for room and board generally \$2 per week if the student brings his lodging, \$2 25c. if lodging and the washing of bedding is furnished; washing of clothes is uniformly 50 cents for a dozen of pieces. Young persons and other distant students are mostly boarded at the Institute at the above prices.



ON THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

A great change has taken place in the manner of educating the deaf and dumb in almost every Institution of high character both in Europe & America, and the total is more than a hundred writing *articulation* and a labial alphabet are at this moment taught, and the use of methodical signs is discontinued in the very school in which they had their origin; the Institution of Paris has entirely changed its ground, and articulation is taught in all its classes. Even religious exercises are no longer conducted by signs; but public prayers are daily articulated in presence of the pupils. The course of education has been much improved by bringing it to the test of Philosophical experiment. The aim of the Instructors is to ascertain the moral and intellectual condition of those who are entrusted to their care, previously to all instruction, and by combining with the fruits of their own observation, a critical comprehension of the methods of teaching, devised by the most distinguished Instructors of the deaf and dumb, to furnish their pupils, in the shortest practicable period, with the most simple and efficient instrument of intercourse with the world, and of supplying as far as possible the place of that source of information from which they are cut off forever. The great end of their labors is to enable the public to communicate with facility with those among whom he is destined to move; and for this purpose the whole course of instruction, thus far, has been mainly directed to the acquisition of written language. Sign language is so far employed as to teach the meaning of words and the ideas which they represent, but beyond this it is not deemed desirable to continue it. Written language being the only medium through which the deaf and dumb can communicate with the world, it is considered important to employ it in all their exercises that they may be familiarly acquainted with its use.

There is one improvement in this branch of the art of teaching, based upon the characters of Sicard, now adopted, or rather originating in the New York Institution. It is a complete system of *grammatical symbols*,—a very important auxiliary in the instruc-

tion of language. The characters of which it consists denote not merely the different parts of speech; but they likewise undergo systematic modifications corresponding to the inflections of language, and bearing a strong analogy in idea to the modifications of meaning attendant upon those inflections. They exhibit thus, nouns and pronouns in their several cases, adjectives in the different degrees of comparison, and the verb in all its varieties of form, whether as transitive or intransitive, active or passive, past, present or future, affirmative, conditional, hypothetical or imperative, or in the infinitive or principal forms. This system is very readily comprehended by the pupils, it is in fact ideographic, and the simplicity of its fundamental principles renders it very easily explicable to any person who will devote a few moments to its examination.

From this brief account of its nature its utility is obvious. It is syntax painted to the eye, superceding the necessity of abstract rules, always difficult to be remembered and especially so for the deaf and dumb. The essentials of the proposition, the subject and the attribute occupy here that prominence which belongs to them, and the relative importance of the direct and indirect complements are evident to mere inspection. Grammar, in fact, becomes a subject of easy intuition, and hence rules are unnecessary, until the pupil is introduced once more to the same subject as a science.

It is a matter of experience that we are often able to read a language with facility, which we are equally unable to write and to speak. In like manner the deaf and dumb will often comprehend sentences addressed to them, and even narrations of length when they are too little accustomed to use language themselves, to be able to express similar ideas in words without some assistance.—The difficulty which they encounter is a difficulty of construction. Instead of wasting time in such a case, by explaining at length what is the arrangement of words proper to be employed, the symbols are spread out before the learner, and the difficulty is at once removed. In this process there is nothing arbitrary which the caprice of a particular language has not rendered so; for so far as reason is to be found in the great principles of general grammar for our specific forms of speech, the symbols explain themselves.—It is thus that they materially abbreviate the processes of the school room, and afford an equal assistance to the teacher and to the pupil.

In another respect they afford a material aid in the instruction of the deaf and dumb to teach language to this class of persons, is to pass through a process similar to that by which we may suppose language to have been originally instituted. The necessity of each new form of speech must be made to appear, before its use can be insisted on. The learner must therefore be led to the real intuition of all those circumstances which render a new form of language desirable, and which constitute the reason of its establishment.—This process is necessarily slow, and when it has been once or twice repeated it becomes desirable to possess some simple and intelligible sign, by which it may be distinctly recalled to the mind, without actually retracing its several steps. Such signs are found in the grammatical symbols. These are the brief representatives of those combinations of circumstances which give rise to their corresponding forms of speech. They render easily comprehensi-

ble ideas which on account of their complexity, it is difficult for the mind to grasp, so long as it is necessary to consider them in detail. The symbols are also useful in correcting the original compositions of the pupils. Arbitrary correction is of little utility—a change of phraseology without a reason assigned, is not long remembered, and if it were, would scarcely be generalized so as to prove of use in any other than a case precisely similar. To point out the place of the error, and cause it to be both discovered and corrected by the pupil himself, is therefore what is desirable. When other means fail for the accomplishment of this object, the placing of the grammatical symbols over the words of the sentence, will often render the error glaring, and the correction immediate.

In fine, the grammatical symbols, may, in some respects, be compared to the signs used for the purposes of abbreviation in mathematics. They have also an advantage of which the deaf and dumb experience peculiarly the benefit, that they abstract the thoughts entirely from the subject of discourse, and fasten them directly and distinctly upon the principles of construction applicable to the case. In regard to the practicability and advantage of teaching the dumb to speak, the President of the New York Institution thus reports :—

As soon as convenient after my arrival in London, I visited the Institution in Surrey, formerly under the care of Dr. Watson, and now under that of his son. I was received by Mr. Watson with great kindness, and shewn through the building, which is convenient and well adapted to its objects. It contains about 220 pupils ; 12 or 14 private pupils reside apart from the others, in Mr. Watson's family. I had an opportunity of witnessing the instruction of the pupils, which very nearly resembles ours, except in two particulars—the use of the double-handed alphabet (certainly I think not so simple and convenient as that performed with a single hand,) and the teaching of articulation. I made very particular enquiry of Mr. Watson in relation to his views of the expediency of the latter, and found his opinion as the result of his father's, and his experience entirely favorable to its use. I saw and conversed with two men, one of whom had been employed in some subordinate station in the asylum 27 years, and the other a shorter time. They both spoke without much apparent difficulty, and in a voice far more agreeable than I had before heard, one of the tutors, also a deaf mute, appeared to understand me readily by the motion of my lips, only occasionally requiring a repetition of the words. He was kind enough to shew me some of his compositions, which were not only correctly written, but evinced a well informed understanding, and a pious heart. His enunciation was not materially unpleasant, though by no means so easy and agreeable as that of persons generally, who possess their hearing. But the most gratifying evidence of the practicability of teaching the deaf and dumb to speak, was in the performance of a beautiful boy, between 12 and 13 years of age, who recited an address which had been prepared to be spoken by him at the ensuing annual dinner of the friends of the Institution, at which the Duke of Gloucester is to preside. He delivered the whole memoriter in a sweet, pensive tone of voice, in which though there was some monotony, yet I was astonished at the accuracy of his emphasis and accent, and of the perfect correctness of his memory. Mr. Watson gave me an

opportunity of witnessing the attempts at speaking of several of the other pupils, more of whom equalled those already mentioned, and some were not capable of uttering any sounds that did not grate unpleasantly upon the ear. Upon the enquiry being made by me whether all the pupils were taught to speak, Mr. Watson answered in the negative. The experiment to instruct them is made on all, but from malconformation of the organs of speech or other causes, it frequently fails, and the attempt is relinquished. It is a remarkable fact, that a pupil of this school, after completing his education, and proving himself a young man of excellent talents and attainments, studied law, and has been admitted to its practice, and promises to be very able and useful in the duties of a chamber counsel.

As evidence of the extent to which the intellectual faculties of deaf and dumb persons may be carried, a few of the answers of the Parisian pupils are subjoined, to questions of the nature of which they could have had no previous intimation.

When Clerc was asked if he loved the Abbé Sicard, he replied in the following words: "Deprived at birth of the senses of hearing, and, by a necessary consequence, of speech, the deaf and dumb were condemned to a most melancholy vegetation, the Abbé de l'Epee and the Abbé Sicard were born, and these unfortunate persons, confided to their regenerating care, passed from the class of brutes to that of men, whence you may judge how much I must love the Abbé Sicard."

Massien, being once asked the difference between God and nature, replied, "God is the framer, the creator of all things. The first beings all sprang from his divine bosom. He said to the first, *you shall produce the second*; his wishes are laws,—these laws are nature."

"Eternity," he said, "is a day without yesterday or to-morrow."

"Hope is the flower of happiness."

"Gratitude is the memory of the heart."

A Mr. Albert Newsam, an artist, educated by the State of Pennsylvania, in the Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Philadelphia, has been complimented by a resolution of the House of Representatives there, for the fine specimens of Lithographic drawing, executed and presented by him to the legislature. And

The following specimen of uncorrected composition, by a lad only 15 years of age, a pupil of the New York Institution will be read with interest.

THE EARTH.

The earth is a globe on which we live. It revolves around the sun every year. The earth is round, for the moon shews us that during an eclipse the former makes upon the latter a round shadow. The earth turns round its axes once in a day, and the sun attracts it revolving round it. We cannot fall up off the earth, for it attracts us. When a ship comes from down the curve of the earth, we can see its upper sails at first; and when the ship descends the curve towards us, we can see over it whole. The earth draws the moon revolving round it. If the sun did not draw the earth revolving round it, and if the earth did not attract the moon revolving round it they would fly away.

The people in India think that four great elephants carry the earth on their backs—but they are much mistaken, for how can

the elephants stand? Some of the ancients used to think that a great giant carried the earth on his shoulders, but they did not show on what he could stand.

The Indians in America think that the earth is carried by a great turtle on his back.

These people in India and America are ignorant, and do not know the true God, and that he created the world.

There is a star on the north, which is fixed in the sky. It is called the North Star, when we descend the curve of the earth from the North Star we cannot see it; but when we ascend the curve to it, we can see it.

The northern pole is very severely cold, and there is great ice there in winter, because the sun is not in the part of the sky near it for six months; but in the summer there are heat and light of the sun in a day of six months.

The southern pole resembles the northern.

The sun goes from the southern pole towards the northern in the summer, and afterwards returns from the northern pole towards the southern in winter.

SPECIMENS OF THE POETRY OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.

By a young gentleman, an assistant in the school at Hartford, in the State of Connecticut, who was *four* years under instruction and who says of himself: "after four I was cut off entirely from common conversation, and I have no recollection of hearing poetry before that time."

TO A SNOW STORM IN APRIL.

Last lingerer of winter's wrath!
Why fall so thinly, slow and long.
Why tremble on thy airy path
As if aware the deed was wrong—
And why dissolve the moment, when
The earth receives thee to her breast?
Say—art thou conscious? hast thou been
Inhabitant of holier rest,
Than our low world can bid the share,
And art thou whence pure spirits are?

Why not assume the ancient frown;
And in its wild and mazy rage,
Sweep like a mountain torrent down—
With wind and ocean battle wage?
Awaken up the strife that seems
Asleep, or in confused dreams
Of langour buried—why not show
Thy power and end it at a blow—

And suffer nature to proceed
And turn thee forth, & smiling joys suc-
ceed.

Age, thou art sent to say, 'Farewell,'
And give assurance that the pride
Of winter is at least to dwell
Where Northern lightnings coolly glide
To roar upon the chained deep,
And revel 'mong the icy rocks,
Displaced and started from their sleep,
And bounding o'er in thunder shocks
Bidding the fearless mariner—
'Tho' vain it be—beware!

Then hie away to thy far home,
And bear with thee our wishes best;
And when the summer's past and gone,
Thou wilt return a welcome guest.

VERSES written on the New-York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, from the published poems of JAMES NACK.

Of ignorance the former victims, here
Rise to a nobler and a happier sphere;
The blessings their unhappy lot denied,
Again by Education are supplied;
To burst the clouds that wrapt the mind in night;
To gaze on science in her shrine of light,
When friends beloved in social converse meet,
To interchange with them communion sweet;

With warm affections eloquence to tell,
 What fond emotions in the bosom swell ;—
 These blessings they have found,—nor these alone,
 They know the most sublime that can be known,
 They know a God!—to him their steps are led,
 The path of Everlasting joy to tread,
 Their knees are taught to bow his Throne before ;
 Their hearts a friend and Father to adore.

Before her God upon the bended knee.
 In fervent pray'r the cherub infant sees
 Her raven hair in tremulous wreaths entwining,
 Upon her cheeks carnation bed reclining,
 While she might seem to the enthusiasts' eyes
 Descended in her beauty from the skies.
 Her lips are mute,—but from her heart a prayer
 Ascends to heaven, is heard and answered there :
 And would'st thou know what from that heart proceeds?
 For those who led her to a God she pleads,
 That all the blessings they to her hath giv'n,
 May be on earth repaid them, and in Heav'n.

*Extracts from a Circular of the New York Institution for
 the instruction of the Deaf and Dumb.*

1835.

BUILDINGS, SITUATION AND ACCOMMODATIONS.

The buildings occupied for the purposes of the Institution, are situated in the twelfth Ward of the City of New York on a gentle eminence, three and a half miles distant from the City Hall.—The ground occupied by the main building, with that adjacent to the extent of one acre, is the property of the Institution. In addition to this, nine acres are held by lease from the City Corporation ; of which a part is under cultivation and a part constitutes an extensive lawn, immediately in front of the building ; where the male pupils amuse themselves at proper hours, in athletick sports. The whole, taken together, extends along fiftieth street from the fourth avenue, on which is constructed the New York and Haarlaem rail-road, to the fifth.

Though situated within the chartered limits of the City, the Institution is entirely removed from the vicinity of the dense population ; standing isolated, at a distance of more than a mile from the pavements. It constitutes a little community within itself and is as much secluded from intercourse with others, as in any situation it could possibly be.

The main building, in the dimensions of its plan, is one hundred and ten feet by sixty. In elevation it embraces five stories, including the basement, and is surmounted by a square tower or observatory, commanding an extensive and beautiful prospect. Its rooms are spacious and arranged with a due regard to symmetry as well as convenience. The whole centre of the building on each of the three lower floors is occupied by those apartments in which there is occasion for all the pupils to assemble : as for example, the chapel, the dining room and the school rooms. These common rooms separate the male department, at the eastern extremity from the female at the western. The chief merit of the arrangement consists in its preserving these two departments as far as relates to the accommodations, amusements, and pursuits of the pupils out

of school so independent in every particular, as to constitute of them two separate and distinct communities; while, for the purposes of instruction, intellectual, moral and religious, they may conveniently and speedily be united into one. Each department has its separate flight of stairs extending from the basement to the dormitory on the highest floor, its separate area in the rear, its separate pleasure grounds, and its separate communication with the public road: so that for the ordinary purposes of life, there is no occasion to pass from one to the other.

Beside the principal building in which the pupils with their instructors reside, there is another containing tools and accommodations for the practice of manual labor, in the attainment of certain selected mechanical arts. This building is of two stories, and, with the wings is 105 feet in length by 25 in width.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION.

The internal organization of the establishment may be considered as resolving itself into three principal divisions; to wit, domestic economy, government, and education. These are all under the control of the Principal, who is, of course, responsible to the Board of Directors for the manner in which affairs may be administered.

I. Under DOMESTIC ECONOMY may be embraced whatever relates to the physical wants of the pupil. With regard to those it is unnecessary to be specific. It is sufficient to say that the provision made to meet them is perfectly adequate to its object; while the degree of system, which prevails throughout the whole arrangement, renders its operation as imperceptible as it is efficient. One or two particulars, however, deserve notice.

1.—The Female pupils are under the immediate charge of an experienced Matron, whose careful attention is bestowed as well upon the formation of their manners, as upon suitable provision for the promotion of their comfort and happiness. It is a source of much satisfaction to the Board, that the kindness with which the duties of the Matron have been discharged, has been such as to secure to her the affection of those committed to her care, and lead them to regard her rather as a friend than as a Governess.—The knowledge of this fact will do much to remove the solicitude always felt by parents at a distance, especially for their female offspring.

2.—A bathing establishment is provided for the pupils, and the use of it rigidly enforced.

3.—Board is supplied at the immediate expense of the Directors.

4.—The Instructors take their meals at the same tables and at the same hours with their pupils, all the tables are furnished with food of the same description.

5.—Spacious and airy apartments are reserved for the sick, if such there should be.

II. The GOVERNMENT of the Institution is that of a well ordered family. The principal is regarded as a parent; and this title is not unfrequently applied to him, spontaneously, by the pupils. The immediate administration of government over the males, is committed to the instructors in succession. It is recognized as a fun-

damental principle, that, to provide against any evil is better than to rectify it after it has occurred; constant supervision is, therefore, exercised over the pupils as well in their hours of relaxation, as in those of study. By this means a more correct deportment is secured on their part, while at the same time the difficulties always arising out of the multiplicity of standing rules are avoided. No pupil is permitted to leave the Institution unaccompanied, without a written permission. The government of the females when not occupied in the school-room, belongs to the matron. In their sitting room, they are likewise usually accompanied by the seamstress from whom they receive instruction in needle-work, and who has it in her power to exert over them a beneficial influence. The whole system of government is subject to the constant oversight of the principal.

III. EDUCATION subdivides itself into four departments; the physical, the mechanical, the intellectual, and the moral and religious. The first two of these are intimately connected.

1. *Physical Education*, however in the ordinary acceptation of the term, embraces only that which is intended to give elasticity and vigor to the muscular system; to preserve a suitable equilibrium in the developement of its powers; to accustom the body to that kind and degree of exposure, observed to be most favorable to strength of constitution, and least propitious of the growth of effeminate habits; to give nature, in short, full and free scope in the formation of the animal man. For this purpose exercise in the open air should be encouraged of such kind as to call into action all the muscles of the body indiscriminately. As great a space of time is daily devoted to this object, as is consistent with proper attention to the other branches of education, and as its relative importance demands.

2. *Mechanical Education*, on the other hand, without requiring the equal exertion of every portion of the physical system, is still useful as a species of exercise; while it gives over a certain set of muscles, that degree of command, which, as applied to a particular art, constitutes skill. It may be said to form a branch of the preceding; to which it bears the same relation, as in the intellectual department, the cultivation of a particular study to mental developement in general. In an institution for the deaf and dumb, the mechanical education of the pupils is of very high importance. Necessitated, as from the nature of things, most of them must be, to depend upon the labor of their hands for subsistence we should but half discharge our duty to them, should we suffer them to leave us without some species of knowledge, which could be turned, in this way to immediate account. In the New York Institution a choice is offered between five occupations, viz: Book-binding, cabinet-making, tailoring, shoe-making, and gardening; the male pupils are engaged in some one of these occupations about four and a half hours daily, under the superintendence of skilful workmen. The female pupils, in the meantime, are employed, under the direction of the seamstress, in sewing, knitting, &c. &c., or, under that of the matron, in light household affairs, with the proper management of which it is essential that they should become acquainted. In this latter branch of industry, the principle of a division of labor is introduced, which is useful, not only as promoting expedition, but also as securing to the pupil the benefits of this kind of

experience, and at the same time materially diminishing the burden.

3. *The Intellectual Department* of education, if it will not rank in importance with that of morals and religion, requires, at least, the exercises of talent, industry and perseverance, in a higher degree than any other. The difficulty of the task of teaching the deaf and dumb, the intimate connexion of this subject with that of metaphysics, the depth of the speculations to which the investigations of the science has given rise, and the contrariety of the opinions which have prevailed in relation to the details of its practice among its professors, are matters of which little is yet generally known in this country. The first and great object in the intellectual education of the deaf and dumb, is of course to impart to them a knowledge of the usual medium of communication among mankind, viz: Alphabetic language and as such a language can have no existence for them, except in a visible form; it is the early and constant effort of the instructors in the New York institution, to induce their pupils to receive words under that form, precisely as those who speak receive articulate sounds, viz. as the immediate signs of ideas. When this object is fully attained, that which is peculiar in the education of the deaf and dumb is completed.

During that portion of each day which is spent in the School Room the instructor labors to pass over as much ground in the prosecution of his general plan as possible. During the hours of evening study, the same ground is reviewed by the pupil, and made the subject or the material of independent composition. When the pupil is sufficiently advanced in the knowledge of language to be able with the help of some explanation, to pursue common books, some compendium of Geography, history, or Arithmetic is placed in his hands, and he is required like other children to spend his time on a particular portion, and be ready for examination upon it on the following morning. So short a time is allotted to the deaf and dumb, generally, in public Institutions—that is a time so short, when considered in connexion with the amount they have to acquire, and the immense disadvantages under which they labor; that no instructor would be justified in attempting to introduce into the School room, as subjects of regular instruction, any branches of knowledge of a higher order than those which constitute what is called a common education; nevertheless, lectures are delivered at regular intervals, so arranged as not to interfere with the business of the schools, on select portions of the following subjects:—

1. The political, civil, and social relations of man.
2. Universal History.
3. Chemistry, natural philosophy, and astronomy.
4. Universal Geography.
5. Natural History.
6. The origin, progress, and present state of the useful and ornamental arts.
7. Biography.
8. Book-keeping.

To those courses, it is proposed to add others, as the number of instructors employed by the Institution is increased.

The institution is now in possession of a considerable library of miscellaneous books; it possesses, also, the largest collection

of French, German and English works relating to the art of instructing the deaf and dumb, in its theory and practice, at present existing in the United States. It has likewise a small library of juvenile books for the use of the pupils, models for instruction in drawing, and a philosophical apparatus for use in experimental lectures, to which it is from time to time, making additions.

The classes are seven in number, each under the care of the teacher, who remains connected with them, during the whole period allotted to their education. Occasional instances occur, in which a pupil is transferred from one class to another. This is always done when the purposes of classification which are to bring together those who are most nearly equal in attainment, or in capacity for improvement, and to make a fair distribution of the labor of instruction, can thus be more completely answered. It is the duty of the Principal to spend as much time in each of the classes as the nature of the various calls upon his attention will allow. The benefit of his experience becomes thus felt, throughout the Institution. An intelligent instructor, though new to the employment, with models of lessons or of processes not only explained to him but actually put to use and exhibited in practice before his eyes, will proceed with a much higher degree of confidence than he could possess, if entirely unassisted. The whole experience of another is, in fact, rendered disposable to him; and this, united with his own observation, cannot but render instruction much more efficient in every class, than could be the case under any other arrangement.

4. *Religion and Morality* are inculcated together, and constitute a single department of Education. No opportunity is suffered to escape, of impressing upon the mind of the pupil, his duty to his Maker, and to his fellow-men; and the word of God is constantly referred to as the basis of every moral precept; we need but speak to the conscience of any human being, to draw from him the admission, at least to himself, that he is a sinner. We need but appeal to his reason, to convince him that he is therefore deserving of punishment. To point out the office of the Mediator, to shew the necessity of repentance and trust in him for salvation, is the object always kept in view in the system of Moral and Religious Education, pursued in this institution.

Morning and Evening Prayers, and religious worship on the sabbath, are conducted in the language of signs.

DIVISION OF TIME.

Such being the general plan of economy, Government and Education in the institution. It only remains, in order to afford a complete idea of its operations, to consider the method which prevails in the division of time, and the succession of employments. The breakfast hour, in winter, is half-past six; in summer half-an-hour earlier—the hour of rising, six or half-past five. From the table the male pupils, pass under the eye of an instructor, to the shops or gardens. The females are, in the mean time, occupied in domestic employments, sewing, &c. under the direction of the matron and seamstress. At fifteen minutes before nine notice is given to all to prepare for school, very particular attention is here paid to established habits of cleanliness of person and neatness of dress; and to prevent the formation of those of an opposite nature. Before the 15

minutes have expired the pupils are all seated in order, in their respective sitting-rooms. From these they are summoned to the chapel; the female pupils first taking their places, and after them the males. A passage of Scripture is here explained and applied, followed by a prayer, in the language of signs; the exercises occupying about a quarter of an hour. The male pupils with their teachers, then withdraw to their several school-rooms, and after them the females; passing from story to story, such of them as belong to classes on the floor above, by opposite flights of stairs, and entering the school-room by opposite doors. At half-past 12 the classes are dismissed. The pupils are then immediately summoned to dinner; after dinner there is an interval for recreation, untill half-past one, when the classes re-assemble. At three the pupils return to the chapel, as they left it; an examination takes place upon the meaning and explanation of the passage explained in the morning, and prayers succeed. The male pupils then again repair to their mechanical employments, and the females to their appropriate occupations. Supper takes place at six. When this is passed the pupils resort to their sitting-rooms, for the evening. Here the same order is preserved as in a school. At eight o'clock, the very young pupils are sent to bed; the majority retire at about half past nine; though, occasionally, some of the more advanced are suffered to write or read till a later hour.

The above is generally the winter arrangement. In summer the time is divided somewhat different.

The history of a day in the institution, which has just been given is the history of a week, and of a year.

If there seem to be any thing like monotony in the perpetual recurrence of the same circle, it must be remembered that this is the monotony of method, without which, nothing can any where be effectually accomplished. The monotony is farther, more apparent than real; since it is the body only that retraces, each day, the steps of the preceding; while the mind is pressing forward in a line which never returns into itself, and fastening continually upon that which is new and delightful.

Summary of the Art of instructing Deaf and Dumb.

GENERAL SYSTEM.

Instruments of Instruction.	Directly representing ideas.	{ Signs of action. { Colloquial. Mnemonography: the language of action reduced to writing. Design. { Methodical.	
	Representing words.	{ Grammatical Symbols. Writing. { Alphabetic; Dactylology. { Stenographic. Books. { Alphabetic. The oral alphabet. { Syllabic. The labial alphabet. { In conjunction.	
Matter.	Language.	{ Its import. Nomenclature. { Simple embracing words. Discourse. { Complex phrases. Classification of words. { Tropical figurative expressions. Forms of inflexion, or etymology. Principles of construction, or syntax.	
	Subjects of knowledge.	{ Literature Science. { The amount dependent upon the capacity of the pupil, The useful and elegant Arts. { and the time devoted to instruction. History and Geography. The usages of society. Morals and religion. Indicative: applicable to present objects. { Confined to the material world. Descriptive: " absent " { Illustrative:—the use of examples. Metaphoric:—the use of figurative actions. Inductive:—Analysis, the burden being thrown upon the learner.	
Processes.	Familiar.	{ Explicative—Definition. { Direct. { a priori: Synthesis. Indirect. { a posteriori: Analysis. By exclusion. By contrast.	
	Philosophic.	{ Applicable to intellectual and moral notions.	

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION.

I. Pupils are provided for by the Institution, in all respects, clothing and travelling expenses excepted, at the rate of one hundred and thirty dollars each per annum. Clothing will also be furnished by the Institution if desired, at an additional annual charge of thirty dollars. Payment is required semi-annually in advance.

II. The regular time of admission is at the close of the vacation, which extends from the fifteenth of August to the first of October. No pupil will be received at any other time, except in very extraordinary cases.

III. No deduction will be made from the annual charge in consequence of absence on any account whatever except sickness, nor for the vacation.

IV. Pupils are at liberty to reside during the vacation in the institution, without extra charge.

V. Applicants for admission should be between the ages of ten and 25 years. The institution will not hold itself bound to receive any not embraced within this rule, but may do so at discretion.

VI. Satisfactory security will be required for the punctual payment of bills and for the suitable clothing of pupils.

VII. Applications from a distance, letters of enquiry, &c. must be addressed post-paid, to the Principal of the Institution. The selection of pupils to be supported at the public expense, is made by the Secretary of State at Albany to whom all communications on the subject must be addressed.

VIII. Should objections exist to the admission of any individual the Board reserve to themselves or their officers a discretionary power to reject the application.

The above terms are to be understood as embracing the entire annual expense to which each pupil is subjected, stationary and the necessary school books are furnished by the institution. No extra charge is made, in case of sickness, for medical attendance medicines, or other necessary provisions.

It is suggested to the friends of deaf mute children, that the names of familiar objects may be taught them with comparative ease before their admission, and that the possession of such knowledge in any degree materially facilitates their subsequent advancement. To be able to write an easy hand, or at least to form letters with a pen, is likewise a qualification very desirable. In reference to this subject, it is recommended that the words which constitute writing lessons or *copies* preparatory to admission should be such as have been previously made intelligible to the learner.

In the case of each pupil entering the institution, it is desirable to obtain written answers to the following questions; particular attention to this subject is requested.

1. Was the deafness from birth, and owing to some original constitutional defect; or was it produced by disease or accident; and if so in what way and at what time?

2. Are there any cases of deafness in the same family, or among any of the ancestors of collateral branches of kindred; & how and when produced?

3. Is the deafness total or partial and have any means been employed to remove it; and what are the results of such efforts?

4. Have any attempts been made to communicate instruction, and is the individual acquainted with any trade or art, or with the mode of forming letters with a pen?

APPENDIX TO REPORT ON EDUCATION. 207

5. Is the individual laboring under any bodily infirmity, such as palsy, nervous trembling, or malformation of the limbs, or does he or she shew any signs of mental imbecility or idiocy?

6. What are the names, occupation and residence of the Parents?

7. If either of the Parents is dead, has a second connexion been formed by marriage.

8. What are the number and names of their children?

The present number of pupils in the New York Institution is 137. In 1834 the number of the deaf and dumb in the United States in a course of education was 466. In 1830, the number of the deaf and dumb in the United States, between the ages of 14 and 25 was 1,905. Whole number of all ages, ... 6,106

Number of deaf and dumb in Europe, ... 140,000

Number of deaf and dumb in the whole world, ... 546,000

DEAF AND DUMB IN THE UNITED STATES. CENSUS OF 1830.

STATE OR TERRITORY.	White Deaf and Dumb.	White: Population.	Proportion of Deaf & Dumb, 1 to	Coloured Deaf and Dumb.	Coloured Popula- tion.	Proportion of Deaf & Dumb, 1 to	Total Deaf and Dumb.	Total Population.	Proportion of Deaf & Dumb, 1 to
Maine.....	189	393263	2107	5	1192	238	194	399455	2059
New Hampshire	148	263721	1816	9	607	67	157	269352	1715
Massachusetts..	295	603359	2045	9	7049	783	304	610408	2008
Rhode Island...	56	93621	1672	4	3573	894	60	97199	1620
Connecticut	203	289603	1426	6	3072	1345	209	297675	1424
Vermont.....	174	279771	1607	5	881	176	479	280652	1567
New York.....	336	1873663	2241	43	44945	1045	879	1918602	2183
New Jersey.....	222	300266	1362	15	20557	1370	237	320823	1354
Pennsylvania....	724	1309900	1809	39	38333	903	763	1348233	1767
Delaware.....	35	57601	1645	9	19147	2127	44	76748	1744
Maryland.....	153	291108	1902	96	155932	1624	249	447040	1795
Virginia.....	425	694300	1633	130	517105	1978	555	1211406	2183
North Carolina..	230	472843	2056	83	265144	3194	313	737987	2358
South Carolina..	176	257863	1482	60	323322	4680	245	581185	2372
Georgia.....	145	296806	2047	59	220017	3729	204	516823	2533
Alabama.....	89	190406	2139	23	119121	5179	112	309527	2764
Mississippi.....	29	70443	2429	12	66178	5515	41	136621	3332
Louisiana.....	49	89441	1825	21	126298	6014	70	215739	3082
Tennessee.....	172	535746	3115	23	146158	5220	200	681904	3409
Kentucky.....	303	517787	1709	46	170130	3693	349	687917	1971
Ohio.....	423	928329	2166	9	9574	1664	437	937903	2146
Indiana.....	141	339399	2407	3	3632	1210	144	343031	2382
Illinois.....	66	155061	2350	0	2384		66	157445	2386
Missouri.....	27	114795	4252	8	25660	3207	35	140455	4013
Arkansas.....	10	25671	2567	4	4717	1179	14	30388	2170
Florida.....	5	18385	3677	6	16345	2724	11	34730	3157
District of Co- lombia.....	14	27565	1968	2	12271	6139	16	39831	2461
Michigan.....	15	31346	2089	0	293		15	31639	2109
GRAND TOTAL..	5363	10532060	1964	743	2328642	3134	6106	12860702	2106

NOTE.—The table differs in some of its columns from the official returns. This difference arises from the fact that allowance is here made for the pupils which were at that time connected with the Deaf and Dumb Institutions in Connecticut, New York, and Pennsylvania, from other States.

(TRANSLATION.)

Rules of the Royal institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Paris.

Beside the government pupils received and maintained at the Royal Institution, either gratuitously, or on the payment of one half, or of two thirds the usual rates; and the two classes of day-scholars founded by the City of Paris, this establishment receives an indefinite number of boarders of both sexes.

We will not here repeat the admirable effects produced in the education of the Deaf and Dumb, by the process of that art which has been established by the benefactors of the human race.

We will not here repeat that it puts these unfortunates in possession of all religious and moral benefits of which they would, without its aid, have remained entirely deprived; that it introduces them to the bosom of society from which they would have been excluded; that rescuing from a state almost savage, it elevates them to the dignity of man, in giving a spring to the reason and social affections; so that parents who have children afflicted, with this misfortune, would be guilty of the greatest injustice, if they neglected the occasion here offered to them, of affording to these children all the benefits of which they have been deprived.

But it is deemed incumbent on us to communicate to parents that during several years past, the education of the Deaf and Dumb has received at the Royal institution at Paris, important ameliorations;—The methods of teaching have been improved by experience and new discoveries;—by the better distribution of the pupils, and by the selection and increased number of teachers and assistants:—finally a decree of the minister of the interior has established a council of improvement composed of savans, the most capable, by their knowledge to advance this art. Besides the essential branches of the Institution, which comprise reading and writing—The French Grammar—Religion—Ethics—Arithmetic—the Elementary principles of Geography and History, there is for the scholars of both sexes, a class of drawing; several workshops have been established for the boys. To shops for joiners, tailors and shoe-makers where the pupils make what is necessary for the establishment, are now added,—A shop for Turning; A shop for Engraving; And a shop for manufacturing cabinet ware. In all of which the most finished articles are made.

A new Building on the point of completion is appropriated for the accommodation of others, particularly for workers in watch-making book-binding, &c.

So that the pupils on leaving the establishment, are prepared to embrace a gainful profession, and experience has shewn that they succeed even better than other children in those kinds of employment, which, as has been selected for them, require extreme attention of the eye and great precision of hand.

Girls learn all kinds of work proper to the sex. One of the instructresses teaches likewise embroidery to those whose friends desire it.

The girls occupy a separate building, communicating neither with the street nor with the one for the boys, and see none but their parents. They never go out except but to promenade, and then altogether—a large garden serves for recreation.

The food is wholesome, and the situation most salubrious. The children are surrounded, in health and sickness, with all the attention which an active and tender solicitude can suggest.

No boarder is admitted, until it is properly certified that he is deaf and dumb, and this infirmity verified at his arrival. Neither is any boarder admissible, if he labors under any contagious disease, or epilepsy or without having had the small pox or without having been either inoculated or vaccinated.

There is no entrance as a boarder but between the 15th Oct. and 15th of November.

The price of board is 900 francs for boys and 800 for girls; payable quarterly in advance.

Every boarder whose family does not reside in Paris must have a responsible inhabitant of that city to act for his friends—to pay punctually for his board, and who may be resorted to when the necessities of the scholar, or any other circumstance may render it proper.

Boarders may be entered at the age of seven years. In consideration of the price fixed for board, families will incur no expense for extraordinaries.

It is forbidden that any person connected with the institution, should accept of a gratuity in any shape.

The friends of the children can have, if they wish, every quarter, a certificate of their health and progress.

Subjoined is a list of the clothes which the scholars of either sex must bring with them.

Boys—3 pair sheets—6 napkins—6 pocket handkerchiefs—six shirts—6 cravats—6 pair cotton stockings mixed grey—a French coat of grey mixed cloth collar and facings blue—vest and breeches of same—jacket and pantaloons of brown stuff, to work in—3 cotton caps, one round hat, 3 pair of shoes, 2 combs 1 fine, 1 box, 1 trunk to lock.

Girls—three pair sheets—6 towels—6 chemises—6 pair of cotton stockings, 4 blue, 2 white—6 pocket handkerchiefs—one hat of black straw, uniform—6 caps—6 night caps—6 white muslin neck handkerchiefs—2 colored do.—1 woolen shawl—2 colored aprons—1 woolen petticoat—2 colored do.—2 white do.—2 whalebone corsets—1 woolen knit under jacket—1 white robe of muslin—3 col. do.—2 pair shoes, 2 combs 1 fine, 1 trunk to lock.

All to be entirely new, and in failure to find these, the parents to pay the value of 250 francs.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE ROYAL INSTITUTION.

The Duke of MONTMORENCI.

The Baron DEGERANDO.

The Duke of DOUDEAUVILLE.

The Count ALEXIS DE NOAILLES.

GUENEAU DE MUSSY, *Physician in ordinary to the King.*

The Baron RENDA.

The Abbe BURNIER FONTANEL.

Director—The Abbe PERIER.

Agent—General Baron KEPPLER.

Physician—The Chevalier ITARD.

N. B. The director is to be addressed on all subjects about the instruction and education of the children, and

The Agent General on all matters touching the admission of pupils—the payment of board economical interests, &c.

In the last chapter of a work evincing much learning & research by Rembt, Tobias Guyot, Doctor of Laws, the author directs what ought to be avoided and what followed, in legislating about deaf mutes.

He excludes from the class of real deaf and dumb all who are merely hard or dull of hearing; all who have become deaf after having enjoyed their hearing for some years; all who are without the ability to speak, though they are able to hear; all who in consequence of disease, are sometimes but not always deaf; and finally, all whose sense of hearing has been restored by art. Having given this negative statement he next offers his positive definition thus:—*They only are deaf mutes who are so from birth or from such early infancy that they have never acquired a knowledge of sounds, and have remained deaf forever after.* The consequence of which defect is, that they neither speak nor understand those who do speak, nor make any communication of language by the voice.

After various observations he proceeds to the two-fold inquiry. 1st. What is the disposition and nature of the uninstructed Deaf Mute? and 2nd, what are those of the educated and instructed? On the first of these questions, he considers the deaf mute as in some respects inferior to a brute; though with this memorable difference that he may be taught to understand and to act, and thus perform functions that solely belong to rational creatures. Of the five senses, he considers touch, taste and smell as corporeal; while sight and hearing have a particular reference to the mind.

Deaf mutes when uninstructed, are, he observes, very much prone to imitation; insomuch, that they more resemble apes than men, particularly as they make no distinction between good and bad. They have keen curiosity—are very restless—and exceedingly prone to anger—shunning the society of men—prone to suspicion—and only fearing bodily pain.

His observations on the second query, are briefly these:—Their education is considered as beginning in private, though public instruction is incomparably preferable. The remarks contained in his dissertation refer especially to the latter. Yet with all the information he can be made to acquire, he can only be aided to a certain degree. The absence of hearing restricts necessarily his perfectibility; because he is deprived of that continual repetition of things, truths, comparisons, and deductions, which persons having the sense of hearing enjoy. Whence it happens that a large portion of what they have learned sooner slips from the memory than in those who hear, and by repeated hearing, have ideas formed, inculcated, and faithfully retained in the recollection. Though much has been done for their improvement in the schools established over many parts of civilized Europe, such as writing, reading, and even spelling, it must not be supposed that they equal others even in speech or writing, and however taught or instructed they do not wholly lay aside the nature of deaf mutes, since the defect of hearing remains. Still many of them have gained an acquaintance with the nature of things, of cause and effect, and of the reasons for human actions. They become rational and moral beings—worship the Deity—and are not ignorant of law and right.

They love their parents, love those who have conferred benefits on them. They love mankind, good name, and even grow fond of labor. They submit to order, and willingly afford assistance to others. Having become more cultivated, they seek the conversation of others, and delight to make communications of their own thoughts.

But they retain the vice of curiosity, which, however puerile in them, is, nevertheless, by the trouble it gives to others, not unfrequently the cause of quarrels, the apology and explanation of which is, the ignorance of so many things which those who hear, can so easily and so frequently comprehend as matters withheld from deaf mutes. They accordingly become very impatient, if they to whom they address themselves, do not immediately understand them. Having craved excuse for their excessive curiosity, he makes an apology for their ignorance of those things which can only be acquired by speech, and by intercourse with those who hear. For having now become conscious of their imbecility, they readily yield to the counsels of those who hear. They love to imitate them, but not so much as formerly. They imitate bad as well as good with very little discrimination, for although they may have learned to distinguish between good and bad, the formation of a just criterion between them is always a work of difficulty, in relation to practice and to persons; points on which they very easily err and are deceived.

By the absence of the celestial gift of hearing, the deaf mutes, unless tutored by art, remain ignorant of the Deity and of divine things, and of all the civil duties of virtue and morality. They have so little sympathy, that they are not moved by the miseries nor tears of others, but exhibit the semblance of wooden images in the form of man. They are lustful and lecherous; being under less restraint than those who hear from the advice and instruction of parents, masters, and others in authority. Yet they have some superiority as relates to visible objects; though this advantage seems to be but of little use in the main, through the difficulty of communication with those who hear.

The author manifests extensive knowledge of the subject by references to such writers as Heinicke, Eschke, Ernsdorfer, Petschke, Moritz, Reiche, as well as Sicard, Cusar, Bebian, Desmottiers, Alhoy, Kress and Hard.



The Constitution and By-Laws of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb.

CONSTITUTION.



ARTICLE 1ST.

The title shall be "The Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb."

ARTICLE 2ND.

The school shall be located in Philadelphia.

ARTICLE 3RD.

The institution shall be supported by the annual subscriptions of its members, by life subscriptions, by such aid as the Legislature

212 APPENDIX TO REPORT ON EDUCATION.

of the state may be pleased to afford, by donations and legacies, and by the payment for the education of children by the Parents or others who may have the ability so to do.

ARTICLE 4TH.

The officers of the Institution shall be a President, four Vice-Presidents, (and the number of Vice Presidents may be increased from time to time, by a by-law or by-laws as circumstances may require in extending the benefits of the Institution throughout the state; a Treasurer and recording Secretary. They shall be ex-officio members of the Board of Directors hereinafter provided for.

ARTICLE 5TH.

The President or in his absence one of the Vice Presidents, or in the absence of both, a chairman to be appointed by the members present, shall preside at all meetings of the association, have a casting vote when the members are equally divided upon any question, (but no other) and shall perform such other duties as may be required of them by the by-laws.

ARTICLE 6TH.

The duties of the other officers shall be such as are implied in their titles, and shall be prescribed in the by-laws.

ARTICLE 7TH.

There shall be a Board of 24 Directors, composed of members of the Institution, who shall annually at the meeting next succeeding their Election, appoint one of their number to act as corresponding secretary of the institution, their other duties shall be such as may be defined by the by-laws. There shall also be a committee of twelve ladies selected annually by the board of Directors, at their first meeting in the month of May, to aid in the management of the establishment, under such provisions as may be from time to time prescribed by the by-laws.

ARTICLE 8TH.

Any person may be a member, who shall sign this constitution, and pay a sum not exceeding three dollars per annum, or such gross sum, in lieu thereof, to constitute a member for life, as may be prescribed in the by-laws; provided such sum shall not exceed twenty dollars.

ARTICLE 9TH.

The members of the Institution shall meet annually on the first Wednesday in May, in the city of Philadelphia, (at such hour as the Directors may prescribe) for the election of Officers and Directors, as well as for the transaction of such business as may be then laid before them, and to receive the annual report of the Directors. Adjourned and special meetings may be held as shall be provided for by the by-laws.

ARTICLE 10th.

The Association shall have power to make by-laws, as well as to carry into effect the provisions herein contained as to make other rules and regulations consistent herewith.

ARTICLE 11th.

The right of membership may be relinquished, and the resignation addressed in writing to the board of Directors, shall be accepted by them provided the member shall have discharged all demands due to the Institution.

ARTICLE 12th.

The funds of the Institution shall be at the disposal and under

the management of the Board of Directors ; subject, however, so far as relates to that part derived from the life subscriptions, to such restrictions as may be imposed by the by-laws.

ARTICLE 13th.

Amendments or additions may be made to these articles, or to the by-laws which may be made under them, having been first proposed in writing at one meeting and adopted at a succeeding meeting, by two thirds of the members present, there being at least thirty-three members at said meeting, but not otherwise.

BY-LAWS

OF THE

PENNSYLVANIA INSTITUTION

FOR THE

DEAF AND DUMB.

SECTION 1.

The Treasurer shall, annually and previous to entering upon the duties of his office, give to the President in his private, and not official capacity, in trust for the Institution (or in the event of the institution becoming incorporated, then to the Institution under its corporate title) his bond, with two sureties, who shall be approved of by the board of Directors, in the penal sum of \$4,000, conditioned for the faithful discharge of his duties as Treasurer.

He shall receive and account for all moneys belonging to the Institution, whether they arise from the annual contributions of the members, donations, legacies in cash bequeathed to the Institution, interest that may accrue on investments, or any other source whatever.

He shall also hold, and be accountable for all evidences of stock or other transferrable property of the Institution, which may be placed in his hands by the Board of Directors, for which he shall give them a receipt in a book to be kept by them for that purpose.

Whenever the cash in his hands shall amount to the sum of one hundred dollars, (or at his option a smaller sum) he shall deposit the same in one of the Banks of this city, in his name as Treasurer, and not in his private capacity, to be drawn therefrom only for the purposes of the Institution.

He shall pay all orders for money drawn on him by order of the Board of Directors, which shall be signed by the President of said Board, and countersigned by their Secretary.

He shall keep proper books of account, wherein he shall make faithful entries of all his receipts and expenditures, and shall preserve vouchers for all his payments.

He shall exhibit annually (or oftener, if required so to do by the

board of directors,) a statement of his accounts, in order that they may be laid before the members of the annual meeting.

He shall keep in a book to be provided for the purpose, an alphabetical list of the names of the members, so arranged, that the annual payments made by the members may be distinctly shewn.

His books of accounts shall be at all times subject to the inspection of the President, Vice Presidents, and any member of the Board of Directors.

SECTION 2.

The Recording Secretary shall transcribe into a book kept by him for that purpose, the constitution, these by-laws, and such other by-laws as may be made from time to time. He shall preserve a record of the proceedings, of the members at their annual or other meetings; he shall keep a list of the names of the members noting the period of their becoming so in a book provided specially for that purpose; and he shall also note down against their names the time when they may cease to be members, either by death, resignation, or otherwise; a copy of which shall be furnished to the Treasurer whenever such cessation of membership may occur.

It shall be the duty of the Recording Secretary to act as Secretary to the board of directors and preserve correct minutes of their transactions, which shall be transcribed into a book kept for that purpose, as well as for recording the proceedings of the annual and other meetings of the Institution.

He shall give written or printed notices to the members of the board of directors, of the place and time of holding their meetings, and shall also give public notice in two or more of the newspapers of the city, of all proposed general meetings of the Institution, for at least four days previous thereto except the annual meeting, of which not less than ten days previous notice shall be given.

SECTION 3.

The corresponding Secretary shall be charged with the duty of maintaining such correspondence with individuals, or similar associations at a distance as shall be directed by the board of directors, or that may arise from the nature of the institution. He shall preserve copies of all letters written by him in the performance of his duties, and cause them to be recorded. He shall also preserve copies of all communications relative to the objects of the Institution, whenever their import may be deemed of sufficient interest by the board of directors to warrant it. His records shall be subject at all times to the inspection of the board of directors, or any member of it, and shall also be laid before the general meetings, either at their request or at the board of directors.

SECTION 4.

The board of Directors shall not apply the funds of the Institution for any purpose unconnected with its special objects. They shall have power to make laws and regulations for their own government as well as that of the establishment to be placed under their immediate care and supervision. They shall make all contracts in relation thereto, the amount of which shall be binding on the Institution, and paid for out of its funds; provided that in the expenditure of, or making contracts, amounting to \$500 or more there shall be a majority of the whole board to sanction the same.

It shall be their duty to procure an order book, with marginal reference from which all their warrants on the Treasurer shall be taken, which warrants shall be signed by their President, (or presiding officer as the case may be,) and counter signed by their Secretary. They shall hold stated meetings of their board at such place as they may determine upon, at least once in every month; they may from time to time examine into the state of the funds of the Institution, and require from the Treasurer a statement of his accounts, whenever they may deem it proper so to do; they shall examine and act upon all bills and accounts exhibited against the Institution, and on finding them correct shall order their payment by a warrant on the Treasurer. It shall be their duty to lay before the annual meeting of the Institution, a report of their proceedings for the preceding year, accompanied with an exhibit of the receipts and expenditures, and a general statement of the funds of the Institution.

SECTION 5.

The duties of the Ladies committee shall be prescribed by the board of Directors.

SECTION 6.

The money arising from the life subscriptions of the members, (of which the Treasurer shall keep a distinct account,) shall be invested either in the United States, State, or city Stock.

SECTION 7.

The annual contribution, until otherwise directed by the Institution, shall be two dollars; and the sum to be paid in lieu thereof to constitute a member for life, shall be twenty dollars.

SECTION 8.

The annual contributions of the members shall be considered due from them on the day of the annual meeting in May, and payable in advance; provided that no person who shall sign the constitution at any period less than three months previous to said day, shall be bound to pay in advance to the day of the first succeeding annual meeting, but to that of the second period after his signing.

SECTION 9.

No person shall be considered a member until he shall have signed the constitution and paid the sum of two dollars, the amount of the first years' contribution, agreeable to the provisions of the seventh section of these by-laws.

SECTION 10.

The officers of the Institution, and the board of Directors, shall be elected by ballot, by the members in person, (if not by proxy,) who shall have paid their dues up to the period of the election; the name of each candidate shall be written or printed on the same ticket, designating the office intended, and the person having the highest number of votes shall be declared duly elected. Notice shall be given by the recording secretary of the time and place of holding the election, through the medium of one or more of the newspapers, for at least three days previous thereto.

SECTION 11.

Special meetings may be called by the President, the Board of Directors, or at the request of ten members addressed in writing to the President.

SECTION 12.

Any member who shall refuse or neglect to pay the annual contributions for three years successively, shall be deemed as having relinquished his right of membership; a return of all delinquents shall be made by the Treasurer once in every year to the Board of Directors, who shall act thereon as they may deem expedient to enforce payment.

SECTION 13.

Twenty-five members shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of the ordinary business of the Institution.

SECTION 14.

In case that any office shall become vacated by resignation or otherwise, such vacancy shall be supplied by the Board of Directors until the next election.

SECTION 15.

The unappropriated funds of the Institution may be invested in stock or deposited in the saving fund Society, by the Board of Directors, whenever they may consider it expedient so to do.

SECTION 16.

All evidences of stock belonging to the Institution, shall be held in the name of the Treasurer, in trust for the Pennsylvania Institution for the deaf and dumb, until the association may become incorporated, when they shall be held under the corporate title.

SECTION 17.

A common seal for the use of the Institution shall be devised and procured by the Board of Directors, placed in charge of the Treasurer, and shall be affixed to such papers and documents as shall be ordered by the Association or Board of Directors.

SECTION 18.

A suitable person may be appointed by the board of Directors, as collector of the annual contributions, &c. whenever it may be deemed necessary.

SECTION 19.

Whenever the funds of the Institution will justify, measures shall be adopted by the board of Directors for commencing the Institution, and relief of those deaf and dumb persons who may apply for the benefits of the Institution.

Bulwer's France.

EDUCATION IN FRANCE:—The following statement is extracted from the Review Encyclopédique, which gives as its authority, an Essay upon the moral statistics of France, lately presented to the Academy of Sciences.

DISTRIBUTION OF INSTRUCTION.

Number of order.	Number of young men knowing how to read and write out of every 100.	Number of order.	Number of young men knowing how to read and write out of every 100.
1. Meuse (Maximum)....	74	44. Gers.....	38
2. Doubs.....	73	45. Vaucluse.....	37
3. Jura.....	73	46. Ain.....	37
4. Haut Marne.....	72	47. Charente.....	36
5. Haut Rhin.....	71	48. Aude.....	34
6. Seine	71	49. Saône-et-Loire.....	32
7. Hautes Alpes.....	69	50. Lot-et-Garoune.....	31
8. Meurthe.....	68	51. Cantal.....	31
9. Ardennes.....	67	52. Pyrénées Orientales..	31
10. Marne.....	63	53. Haute Garonne.....	31
11. Vosges.....	62	54. Aveyron.....	31
12. Bas Rhine.....	62	55. Sarthe.....	30
13. Cote D'or.....	60	56. Loire..	29
14. Haute Saone.....	59	57. Isère.....	29
15. Aube.....	59	58. Landes.....	28
16. Moselle.....	57	59. Vendôme.....	28
17. Seine et Oise.....	56	60. Lozère.....	27
18. Eure et Loire.....	54	61. Loir-e -Cher.....	27
19. Seine et Marne.....	54	62. Ardeche (Minimum)...	27
20. Oise.....	54	63. Indre et Loire.....	27
21. Hautes Pyrenees.....	53	64. Tarn et Garone.....	25
22. Calvados.....	52	65. Vienne.....	25
23. Eure.....	51	66. Isle et Vilaine.....	25
24. Aisne.....	51	67. Loire Inferieure.....	24
25. Corse.....	49	68. Lot.....	24
26. Pas de Calais.....	48	69. Var.....	23
27. Yonne.....	47	70. Maine et Loire.....	23
28. Basses-Pyrénées.....	47	71. Creuse.....	23
29. Basses Alpes.....	46	72. Haute Loire..	21
30. Nord.....	45	73. Tarn.....	20
31. Rhône.....	45	74. Maine.....	20
32. Hérault.....	45	75. Mayenne.....	19
33. Orne.....	45	76. Puy de Dôm.....	19
34. Somme.....	44	77. Ariège.....	18
35. Seine Inferieure.....	43	78. Dordogne.....	18
36. Bouches-du-Rhone....	38	79. Indre.....	17
37. Manche.....	43	80. Côtes du Nord.....	16
38. Loiret.....	42	81. Finisterre.....	15
39. Drome.....	42	82. Morbihan.....	14
40. Deux-Sèvres..	41	83. Cher.....	13
41. Gard.....	40	84. Haute Vienne.....	13
42. Gironde.....	40	85. Allier.....	13
43. Charente-Inferieure....	39	86. Corrège.....	12

Average of the Kingdom..... 38.

218 APPENDIX TO REPORT ON EDUCATION.

This is the distribution of instruction in France:—While the average number of children at school in the United States and different States of Europe in proportion to the number of inhabitants, gives this result:—

United States.....	1	Scholar on	4	Inhabitants.
Pays de Vaud.....	1	do.	6	do.
Wurtemberg.....	1	do.	6	do.
Prussia.....	1	do.	7	do.
Bavaria.....	1	do.	10	do.
England.....	1	do.	11	do.
Austria.....	1	do.	13	do.
France.....	1	do.	20	do.
Ireland.....	1	do.	21	do.
Poland.....	1	do.	78	do.
Portugal.....	1	do.	88	do.
Russia.....	1	do.	367	do.

In connexion with the foregoing, Mr. Bulwer refers to a new and very remarkable work by Mr. Guerry, (*Statistique Morale de la France*,) and asks what influence instruction has with the following calculations on crime?

Dividing France into five *regions* or districts, composed each of seventeen departments, and dividing the crimes committed in each of these regions into two classes, *i. e.* crimes against property, and “crimes against the person,” the following table, taking one hundred as the number of crimes committed in, gives the result of Mr. Guerry’s calculations.

<i>Division of France into Five Regions.</i>		POPULATION.
NORTH.—Aisne, Ardennes, Calvados, Eure, Mauche, Marne, Mense, Mosselle, Nord, Oise, Orne, Pas-de-Calais, Seine, Seine-Inferieure, Seine-et-Marne, Seine-et-Oise, Somme,.....		8,757,700
SOUTH.—Ardèche, Arriège, Aude, Aveyron, Bouches-du-Rhone, Gard, Haute-Garonne, Gers, Herault, Lot, Lozerre, Hautes-Pyrénées, Pyrenees-Orientales, Tarn, Tarn-et Garonne, Vancluse, Var,.....		4,826 493
EAST.—Ain, Basses-Alpes, Hautes-Alpes, Aube, Côte-d’or, Doubs, Diôme, I-Sère Jura, Haute-Marne, Meurthe, Bas-Rhin, Haute-Rhin, Rhone, Haute-Saone, Saone-et-Loire, Vosges,....		5,840,996
WEST.—Charente, Charente-Inferieure, Côtes-du-Nord, Dordogne, Finisterre, Gironde, Isle-et-Vilaine, Landes, Loire-Inferieure, Lot-et-Garonne, Maine-et Loire, Mayenne, Morbihan, Basses-Pyrénées, Deux-Sevres, Vendée, Vienne,.....		7,008,788
CENTRE.—Allier, Cantal, Cher, Correze, Creuse, Eure-et-Loire, Indre, Indre-et-Loire, Loirê, Loire-et-Cher, Loiret, Haute-Loire, Nèvre, Puy-de-Dôme, Sarthe, Haute-Vienne, Youne,.....		5,238,905
Corse.....		185,079
Total Population.....		13,857,961

CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON.

REGIONS.		1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	Average
{	North.....	25	24	23	26	25	24	25
	South.....	28	26	22	23	25	23	24
	East.....	17	21	19	20	19	19	19
	West.....	18	16	21	17	17	16	18
	Centre.....	12	13	15	14	14	18	14
Total.....		100	100	100	100	100	100	100

CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY.

REGIONS.		1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	Average
{	North.....	41	42	42	43	44	44	42
	South.....	12	11	11	12	12	11	12
	East.....	18	16	17	16	14	15	16
	West.....	17	19	19	17	17	17	18
	Centre.....	12	12	11	12	13	13	12
Total.....		100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Of all the marvellous calculations, says Mr. Bulwer, ever yet published, this calculation is perhaps the most marvellous; for whatever the basis on which the computation is made, it is not a whit the less wonderful that it should in six successive years give an almost similar result; and this, not in one species of crime—not in one division of France—but in all the divisions of France, and in each distinct class of crime!—Thus maintaining between the different portions of the Kingdom a particular and almost invariable criminal ratio (if I may thus express myself,) which none of the many casualties to which human life is subject seem effectually to alter or control.

A difference of this kind cannot be the effect of law, for the law in all parts of France is the same; it cannot be the effect of accident, because it would not, surely, in that case, perpetually recur. What has instruction to do with it—I mean that kind of instruction on which persons considering these subjects usually found their propositions?

A.

INSTRUCTION.

DISTRIBUTION OF INSTRUCTION IN THE FIVE REGIONS.

ENROLLED YOUNG MEN.

Proportion of the young men who can read and write, out of those inscribed on the register of the military census.

On 100 young men knowing how to read and write.

REGIONS.		Years.....1827.	1828.	1829.
{	East.....	51	E..... 55	E..... 58
	North.....	48	N..... 53	N..... 55
	South.....	32	S..... 33	S..... 34
	West.....	26	W... 27	W... 27
	Centre.....	24	C..... 25	C..... 25

B.
ACCUSED.

Proportion of the number of accused knowing at least, how to read, out of the total number of accused brought before the Court of Assize.

On 100 accused knowing how to read.

REGIONS.	Years.....			1828.	1829.	1830.
{	East.....			52	E..... 52	E..... 53
	North.....			49	N..... 47	N..... 47
	South.....			31	S..... 28	S..... 30
	West.....			25	W... 25	W.... 24
	Centre.....			29	C..... 23	C..... 23

C.
PUPILS.

Proportion of the number of male pupils compared with the population.

Year..... 1829.

{	East.....	1	pupil on 14 inhabitants.
	North.....	1	do. 16 do.
	South.....	1	do. 43 do.
	West.....	1	do. 45 do.
	Centre.....	1	do. 48 do.

INFLUENCE OF THE SEXES.

CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON.

NATURE OF THE CRIMES.	Proportion of the Sex accused for each crime 100 cases.	
	Men.	Women.
Slave Trade.....	} 100*	} —0
Forfeiture.....		
Violation of Public decency.....		
Breach of the sanitary laws.....		
False witnessing in civil matters.....		
Rape.....	99	1
Rape or intent to on children.....	99	1
Bigamy.....	98	2
Contempt of Court, &c.....	98	2
Threatening under conviction.....	97	3
Political offences.....	97	3
Murder.....	96	4
Cutting and Maiming.....	95	5
Rebellion.....	91	9

* In these tables the *maximum* is indicated by the Algebraic sign and the *minnum* by the sign.

NATURE OF THE CRIMES.	Proportion of the Sexes accused for each crime 100 cases.	
	Men.	Women.
Assasination (murder premeditated).....	89	11
False witness and bribery.....	85	15
Escaping from prison.....	83	17
Cutting and maiming parents and guardians..	80	20
Begging, accompanied with violence.....	79	21
Criminal conspiracy.....	80	20
Parricide.....	64	36
Poisoning.....	55	45
Assault upon children.....	50	50
Abortion.....	28	72
Castration.....	25	75
Infanticide.....	6	94



CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY.]

Smuggling.....	} x 100	—0
Breaking open of sealed things.....		
Loss of a ship by negligence.....		
Barratry.....		
Fraudulent use of a blank signature.....	}	99
Exaction and corruption.....		
Forgery of seals.....	98	2
Distribution of moveable and immoveable property.....	98	2
Forgery of Bank notes.....	95	5
Frauds in Commercial documents.....	93	7
Robbery on the High-way.....	92	8
Suppression of title deeds.....	90	10
Pillaging and destroying of furniture.....	89	11
Frauds.....	89	11
Fraudulent bankruptcies.....	86	14
Frauds by fictitious characters.....	86	14
Counterfeit coin.....	86	14
Burning property, (various).....	84	17
Theft.....	83	17
Sacrilege.....	78	22
Extortion of signatures.....	71	29
Firing of buildings.....	70	30
Pillaging and destroying of grain.....	69	31
Robbery in dwelling houses.....	60	40

CRIMES AGAINST THE PERSON.

Numbers.	NATURE OF CRIMES.	No. of Crimes	
		Per Annum.	In 1,000.
1	Cutting and maiming.....	368	197
2	Murder.....	298	160
3	Assassination (murder premeditated)..	255	137
4	Rebellion.....	196	105
5	Rape and assault, with intent to.....	173	93
6	Do. do. on children.....	133	71
7	Infanticide.....	118	63
8	False witness and bribery.....	87	47
9	Cutting and maiming parents, guar- dians, &c.....	85	46
10	Poisoning... ..	40	21
11	Criminal conspiracy.....	22	12
12	Crimes against children.....	20	11
13	Parricide.....	13	7
14	Abortion.....	12	7
15	Bigamy.....	11	5
16	Contempt of Court and its officers....	9	5
17	Begging, accompanied with violence..	9	5
18	Political offences.....	6	3
19	Threatening... ..	6	3
20	Breaking Prison.....	1	2
21	Breach of the sanitary laws.....	1	
22	Castration.	1	
23	False witnessing in civil cases... ..	1	
24	Violation of public decency... ..		
25	Forfeiture.....		
26	Slave-trade.....		
Total.....		1865	1000

Numbers.	CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY.	No. of Crimes	
		Per Annum.	In 1,000.
1	Robbery (differing from the following)	3219	610
2	do. in dwelling houses... ..	1043	198
3	Fraudulent offences (differing from } the following).....	255	48
4	Forging in commercial documents...	106	20
5	Robbery on the High-way.....	159	30
6	Fraudulent bankruptcy.....	105	20
7	Burning of buildings, &c.....	87	16
8	Sacrilege.....	54	10
9	Frauds under false pretences.....	48	9

10	Counterfeit coin.....	46	9
11	Exaction and corruption.....	39	7
12	Extortion of signature.	27	5
13	Destruction of moveable or immove- able property..... }	24	5
14	Pillage and destruction of grain.....	23	4
15	Burning of various objects.....	18	3
16	Counterfeiting seals, &c....	9	2
17	Pillage and destruction of furniture..	6	1
18	Suppression of titles or deeds.....	4	} 3
19	Forgery of Bank notes ...	3	
20	Defrauding the Public Treasury.....	3	
21	Smuggling.....	2	
22	Breaking open of sealed things.....	} 2	
23	Loss of a Ship by negligence of the Pilot..... }		
24	Barratry....		
25	Abuse of a blank signature.....	}	}
		5282	1000



CRIMES AGAINST PERSONS.

No.	DEPARTMENTS.	1 accused out of — inhabitants	No.	DEPARTMENTS.	1 accused out of — inhabitants
1	Corse.....	2199	25	Vienne.....	15010
2	Lot.....	5885	26	Corrèze.....	15262
3	Arriège.....	6173	27	Marne.....	15602
4	Pyrénées—Orien- tales.....	6728	28	Aude.....	15647
5	Haute Rhine....	7343	29	Haute Loire....	16170
6	Lozère.....	7710	30	Haute-Vienne....	16256
7	Aveyron.....	8236	31	Basses-Pyrénées.	16722
8	Ardeche.....	9474		Average, 17085.	
9	Doubs.....	11560	32	Pay de Dôme....	17256
10	Mosselle.....	12153	33	Hautes Alpes....	17488
11	Hautes Pyrénées.	12223	34	Calvados ..	17577
12	Bas-Rhine.....	12309	35	Landes....	17687
13	Seme-et-Oise....	12477	36	Loiret.....	17722
14	Herault.....	12814	37	Yonne.....	18006
15	Basses Alpes....	12935	38	Cantal.....	18070
16	Tarn.....	13019	39	Siene-Inferieure..	18355
17	Gard.....	13115	40	Deux-Sèvres....	18400
18	Var.....	13145	41	Haute-Garonne..	18642
19	Drôme.....	13396	42	Gers.....	18642
20	Bouches du Rhone	13409	43	Charente-Infericure	18712
21	Vaucluse.....	13576	44	Isère.....	18785
22	Seine.....	13945	45	Rhone.....	18793
23	Tarn-et-Garonne.	14790	46	Vosges.....	18835
24	Eure.....	14795	47	Indre-et-Loire...	19131
			48	Loire-Inferieure.,	19314

49	Aube.....	19602	68	Meurthe	26574
50	Vendee.....	20826	69	Nord.....	26740
51	Loir-et-cher.....	21292	70	Allier.	26747
52	Eure-et-Loire....	21368	71	Loire.....	27491
53	Dordogne	21585	72	Oise... ..	28180
54	Cher	21934	73	Orne	28329
55	Isle-et-Vilaine ...	22138	74	Meyenne	28331
56	Seine-et-Marne..	22201	75	Côtes-du-Nord...	28607
57	Haute Saône	22339	76	Laone-et-Saone..	28391
58	Lot-et-Garoune...	22969	77	Ainc	28870
59	Pas de-calais	23101	78	Maine-et-Loire...	29592
60	Morbihan.....	23316	79	Finisterre	29872
61	Gironde.....	24096	80	Manche.....	36078
62	Meuse.....	24507	81	Côte d'or.....	32256
63	Charente.....	24964	82	Indre.. ..	32404
64	Nievre.	25087	83	Somme	33592
65	Jura.....	26221	84	Surthe.....	33913
66	Aisne.....	26226	85	Ardennes.....	35203
67	Haute-Marne....	26231	86	Creuse.....	37014

Forwarded.



CRIMES AGAINST PROPERTY.

No	DEPARTMENTS.	1 accused out of inhabitants.	No.	DEPARTMENTS.	1 accused out of inhabitants.
1	Seine.....	1368	25	Landes	6170
2	Seine-Inférieure ..	2906	26	Nord	6175
3	Seine-et-Oise.....	3879	27	Tarn.....	6241
4	Eure-et-Loire.....	4016	28	Haute-Vienne....	6402
5	Pas-de-Calais.....	4040	29	Yonne... ..	6516
6	Aube.....	4086	30	Ille-et-vilaine...	6524
7	Calvados.....	4500	31	Oise.....	6659
8	Rhone.....	4504	32	Avey-ron.....	6731
9	Moselle	4529	33	Meurthe.....	6831
10	Corse.....	4889	34	Finisterre.....	6842
11	Vienne	4710	35	Deux Sévres.....	6863
12	Eure	4774	36	Indre-et-Loire....	6909
13	Haut Rhine	4915	37	Cotes-du-Nord..	7059
14	Bas-Rhin	4920	38	Somme	7144
15	Marne.....	4950	39	Haute Garonne..	7204
16	Loiret	5042	40	Basses Alpes....	7289
17	Bonches-deRhône	5291	41	Gironde.....	7423
18	Charente Inférieure	5357	42	Manche	7424
19	Aisne.....	5521	43	Vendee... ..	7566
20	Vaucluse.....	5731	44	Indre.....	7624
21	Seine-et-Marne..	5786	45	Pyrénées-Orienta- les	7632
22	Doubs	5914	46	Drôme.....	7759
23	Lozère.....	5990	47	Haute Saône.....	7770
24	Loire-et-cher	6017	48	Allier.....	7925
	Average....	6031			

49	Morbihan.....	7940	68	Haute Marne....	9539
50	Gard.....	7990	69	Var.....	9572
51	Jura.....	8059	70	Ariège.....	9597
52	Hautes-Alpes ...	8174	71	Hautes-Pyrenees.	9797
53	Nièvres.....	8236	72	Dordogne.....	10237
54	Orre.....	8248	73	Ardèche.....	10263
55	Sarthe.....	8294	74	Aude.....	10431
56	Isère ...	1326	75	Gers.....	10486
57	Maine-et-Loire...	8520	76	Cher.....	10503
58	Basses Pyrénées.	8533	77	Saône-et-Loire...	10708
59	Tarne-et-Garonne	8660	78	Herault.....	10954
60	Ardennes.....	8847	79	Cantal.....	11645
61	Lot-et-Garonne ..	8943	80	Puy-de-dôme.....	12141
62	Vosges.....	9044	81	Loire.....	12665
63	Lot.....	9049	82	Corrège.....	12949
64	Côte-d'or... ..	9159	83	Charente.....	13018
65	Meuse... ..	9190	84	Ain.....	15890
66	Mayenne.....	9198	85	Haute-Loire.....	18045
67	Loire Inferieure..	9392	86	Creuse.....	20235

EDUCATION BILL.

WHEREAS, the promotion of the Education of the youth of this Province is indispensable to the domestic and social happiness, to the commercial prosperity and national greatness, and to the peace, welfare, and good government of the same: and whereas the common school system of this Province has not produced the benefits so much desired by the thinking portion of its inhabitants: and wherefore it is expedient to alter, amend, and reduce to one act the several provisions of the same.

Be it &c.—That from and after the 1st day of January 1837, there shall be granted to His Majesty annually out of the rates and duties now raised, levied and collected, or hereafter to be raised, levied and collected, to and for the public uses of this Province, and in the hands of the Receiver General unappropriated, for the use of common schools in this Province, the sum of fifteen thousand pounds.

And be it &c.—That whenever the permanently available public school fund of this Province, arising from any source whatever, shall amount to ten thousand pounds per annum, it shall and may be lawful for the Governor, &c. to appoint under the seal of this Province, a superintendent of common schools, whose duty it shall be among other things to prepare and submit an annual report to the Legislature, containing:

1. A statement of the condition of the common schools of the province.
2. Estimates and accounts of expenditures of the school monies.
3. Plans for the improvement and management of the common school fund, and for the better organization of the common schools:—and
4. All such matters relating to his office, and to the common schools, as he shall deem expedient to communicate.

Preamble.

Superintendent, when & how to be appointed.

His duties.

Apportionment and ratio of apportionment.

And be it, &c.—That in every year, immediately following a year in which a census of the population of this Province shall have been taken, the Superintendent shall apportion the school monies to be annually distributed amongst the several districts of this Province, and the share of each district amongst its respective towns and cities, in the following manner: the one moiety thereof shall be apportioned among the several towns and cities of the Province, according to the ratio of the number of children over five and under sixteen years of age, as compared with the population of the whole Province according to the last preceding census, and the other moiety among the several townships in proportion to the amount of school monies raised in the several townships in this Province, except as is hereinafter provided.

Increase of school monies, how apportioned.

And be it, &c.—That if an increase of the school monies to be distributed, shall take place in any other year than the one immediately following a census, the Superintendent shall apportion such increase amongst the several districts, cities, & towns, according to the ratio of the apportionment then in force.

Proceedings when census defective.

And be it, &c.—That when the census or returns, upon which an apportionment is to be made, shall be so far defective, in respect to any district, city, or town, as to render it impracticable for the Superintendent to ascertain the share of school monies, which ought then to be apportioned to such district, city, or town, he shall ascertain by the best evidence in his power, the facts upon which the ratio of such apportionment shall depend, and shall make the apportionment accordingly.

Proceeding when town altered, &c.

And be it &c.—That whenever, in consequence of the division of a town or the erection of a new town in any district, the apportionment then in force, shall become unjust, as between two or more towns of such district, the Superintendent shall make a new apportionment of the school monies next to be distributed amongst such towns, ascertaining by the best evidence in his power, the facts upon which the ratio of apportionment as to such towns shall depend.

Certificate and notice of apportionment

And be it, &c.—That the superintendent shall certify each apportionment made by him to the Governor, and shall give immediate notice thereof to the clerk of the peace of each district interested therein, stating the amount of monies apportioned to his district and to each town and city therein, and the time when the same will be payable to the commissioners of such town or to the chamberlain of the city of Toronto.

And be it, &c.—That the superintendent shall prepare suitable forms and regulations for making all reports, and conducting all necessary proceedings under this Act, and shall cause the same, with such instructions as he shall deem necessary and proper, for the better organization and government of common schools, to be transmitted to the officers required to execute the provisions of this Act throughout the Province.

Regulations
respecting
forms, &c.

And be it, &c.—That all monies reasonably expended by him in the execution of his duties, shall upon due proof, be allowed to him by the Governor, and be paid out of the Treasury.

Expenses
how paid.

And be it, &c.—That the sum annually to be distributed for the encouragement of common schools, shall be paid on the first day of February, in every year, on the Warrant of the Governor, to the Treasurers of the several districts, and the Chamberlain of the city of Toronto.

Distribution
of the common
school fund.
When paid.

And be it, &c.—That the Treasurer of each district, and the Chamberlain of the city of Toronto, shall apply for and receive the school monies apportioned to their respective districts as soon as the same become payable.

Treasurer to
apply for and
receive.

And be it, &c.—That each Treasurer receiving such monies, shall give notice in writing, to some one or more of the commissioners of common schools of each town or city in his district, of the amount apportioned to such town or city, and shall hold the same subject to the order of such commissioners.

To give
notice.

And be it, &c.—That in case the commissioners of any such city or town, shall not apply for and receive such monies, or in case there are no commissioners appointed in the same, before the next receipt of monies apportioned to the district; the monies so remaining with the Treasurer shall be retained by him, and be added to the monies next received by him for distribution from the Superintendent of common schools, and be distributed therewith and in the same proportion.

Monies re-
maining, how
disposed of.

And be it, &c.—That whenever the clerk of the peace of any district, shall receive from the superintendent of common schools, notice of the apportionment of monies to be distributed in the district, he shall file the same in his office, and transmit a certified copy thereof to the district treasurer, and also to the clerk of each township, to be by him laid before the school commissioners of such township; which sum so apportioned, together with the sum raised in that township by the vote of its qualified voters at their last preceding annual township meeting, shall be apportioned by the said township commissioners among the several school districts of the

Clerk of the
Peace.

228 APPENDIX TO REPORT ON EDUCATION.

His duty on township as follows: one moiety to be apportioned to each district, in proportion to its number of children between the ages of five and sixteen exclusive; and the other moiety, to be divided among the school districts, in the township in proportion to the amount of money actually paid by each district towards the Teacher's wages in such district.

Duty of commissioners. *And be it, &c.*—That the commissioners shall cause and require the collector of each town, by their warrant to him, to pay the monies so added when collected, retaining his fees for collection, to some one or more of the commissioners of common schools in such town for the use of common schools therein, whose receipt therefor, shall be sufficient evidence of payment.

When monies to be paid to treasurer. *And be it, &c.*—That if there shall not be any commissioners of common schools, in such town when the monies are collected, the collector shall pay the same, retaining his fees for collection, to the district treasurer to be by him apportioned among the several cities and towns in the district, and distributed in the manner herein provided.

Superintendent's duties, pro. tem. to be exercised under his superintendence, and all the duties of the other officers of the several districts, cities, or towns in this Province, shall be transacted and done between them and the Governor of this Province, in the same manner as they are by this Act required to be done by them, and to the Superintendent of common schools in this Province. *And be it, &c.*—That until a superintendent of common schools shall have been appointed in this Province, it shall be the duty of the Governor, &c. to cause the duties of that office to be executed under his superintendence, and all the duties of the other officers of the several districts, cities, or towns in this Province, shall be transacted and done between them and the Governor of this Province, in the same manner as they are by this Act required to be done by them, and to the Superintendent of common schools in this Province.

Town clerk to give am't of school monies to clerk of the peace, who apportion, &c. *And be it, &c.*—That it shall be the duty of the town clerk of every township, with as little delay as possible after the annual township meeting, to make out and transmit to the clerk of the peace for his district, the amount of money to be raised in his township for the support of common schools, who shall apportion the same, upon the rateable property of such township, in the same manner as the other monies, to be raised and collected in that township shall be apportioned to be collected.

Commissioners and inspectors. *And be it, &c.*—That at the township meeting, convened under the authority of an Act passed in the 5th year of the reign of His Majesty William the fourth, entitled an "Act to reduce to one Act of Parliament the several laws relative to the appointment and duties of township officers in this Province, except an act passed in the fourth year of the reign of William the Fourth, chapter twelve, entitled "an act to regulate line fences and water courses," and to repeal so much of an act passed in the thirty-third year of the reign of His late Majes-

ty King George the Third, entitled "an act to provide for the nomination and appointment of parish and town officers within this Province," as relates to the office of fence viewers being discharged by overseers of highways and roads, there shall be elected in the same manner as other township officers, three persons in each township to be school commissioners of such township, and three persons who shall be school inspectors for the same.

And be it, &c.—That the commissioners of the several townships so chosen, as aforesaid, shall be annually required to give bonds to the treasurer of the district, in double the amount of the sums liable to pass through their hands, during the period of their continuance in office.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the commissioners of common schools, in each township.

1. To divide their township into a convenient number of School Districts, and to regulate and alter such districts as hereinafter provided.

2. To describe and number the School Districts and to deliver the description and numbers thereof in writing to the Town Clerk, immediately after the formation or alteration thereof.

3. To apply for and receive from the District Treasurer, all moneys apportioned for the use of common schools in their township, and from the Collector of the Township all moneys raised therein for the same purpose as soon as such moneys shall become payable or be collected.

4. To apportion the school monies received by them on the first Tuesday in April in each year among the several School Districts, parts of districts, and the neighbourhoods separately set off within their Townships as follows: one moiety in proportion to the number of children residing in each over the age of five and under that of sixteen years, as the same shall have appeared from the last annual reports of their respective Trustees; and the other moiety in proportion to the amount actually paid for teachers wages, during the year, as compared with the whole amount paid in such Township for teachers wages during the same period.

5. If the Commissioners shall have received the School monies of their Township and all the Reports from the School Districts therein before the first Tuesday of April, they shall apportion such monies as above directed within ten days after receiving all of the said reports and the said monies.

6. To sue for and collect by their name of office all penalties and forfeitures imposed in this Act, and in respect to which no other provision is made, which shall be incurred by any officer or inhabitant of their Township; and after deducting their costs and expenses, to add the sums recovered to the school monies received by them to be apportioned and paid in the same manner.

To be elected at the annual town meeting. 3 commissioners & 3 inspectors

Commissioners to give bonds in double the amount, &c.

Powers and duties of commissioners.

To divide their townships into districts.

to describe and number the school districts.

to apply for and receive all school monies from the district treasurer and township collector.

to apportion the monies so received, according to the ratio of children over 5 and under 16.

monies to be apportioned within ten days after receipt.

to sue for and collect fines and forfeitures, ex-officio.

Double
districts.

And be it, &c.—That whenever it may be necessary or convenient, to form a district out of two or more adjoining townships, the commissioners from each of such adjoining townships, or the major part of them, may form, regulate and alter such district.

Consent of
trustees.

And be it, &c.—That no alteration of any school district, made without the consent of the trustees thereof, shall take effect until three months after notice in writing, shall be given by the commissioners, to some one or more of such trustees.

When monies
to be withheld

And be it, &c.—That in making the apportionment of monies among the several school districts, no share shall be allotted to any district, part of a district, or separate neighborhood, from which no sufficient annual report shall have been received, for the year ending on the last day of December, immediately preceding the apportionment; excepting

Exception.

all cases where a school district shall have been formed at such a time previous to the first day of January, as not to have allowed a reasonable time to have kept a school therein for the term of three months; such district having been formed out of a district or districts, in which a school house shall have been kept for three months, by a teacher duly qualified, during the year preceding the first day of January.

Ib.

And be it, &c.—That no monies shall be apportioned and paid to any district, or part of a district, unless it shall appear by such report, that a school had been kept therein for at least three months, during the year ending at the date of such report, by a qualified teacher, and that all monies received from the commissioners during that year, have been applied to the payment of the compensation of such teacher; or, as excepted in the last clause of the preceding section of this Act.

As the pre-
ceding.

And be it, &c.—That no part of such moneys shall be apportioned or paid to any separate neighborhood, unless it shall appear from the report of its trustee, that all moneys received by him from the commissioners, during the year ending at the date of such report, have been faithfully applied in paying for the instruction of the children residing in such neighborhood.

Case for new
apportionment

And be it, &c.—That if after the annual reports from the districts shall have been received, and before the apportionment of the school moneys shall have been made by the commissioners, a district shall be duly altered, or a new district be formed in the township, so as to render an apportionment founded solely on the annual reports, unjust, as between two or more districts of the township, the commissioners shall make an apportionment among such districts, according to the number of children

in each over the age of five, and under sixteen years; ascertaining that number by the best evidence in their power, and in proportion to the amount of school monies raised in the said township as aforesaid.

And be it, &c.—That all monies apportioned by the commissioners, to the trustees of a district, part of a district, or separate neighborhood, which shall have remained in the hands of the commissioners for one year after such apportionment, by reason of the trustees neglecting or refusing to receive the same, shall be added to the monies next thereafter to be apportioned by the commissioners, and shall be apportioned and paid therewith, and in the same manner. Monies in commissioners hands one year to be added to and apportioned with next year's receipts

And be it, &c.—That in case any school monies received by the commissioners, cannot be apportioned by them, for the term of two years after the same are received, by reason of the non compliance of all the school districts in their township with the provisions of this Act, such moneys shall be returned by them to the district Treasurer, to be by him apportioned and distributed, together and in the same manner with the moneys next thereafter to be received by him for the use of common schools. Monies not apportioned for two years, returned to district treasurer for subsequent apportionment

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the commissioners in each township, between the first day of July and the first day of October in each year, to make and transmit to the district Clerk of the Peace a report in writing bearing date on the first day of July, in the year of its transmission, and stating. Commissioners to report annually.

1. The whole number of School Districts and neighborhoods, separately sett off within their township. the number of school districts, &c.

2. The Districts, parts of Districts, and neighborhoods, from which reports shall have been made to the commissioners, or their immediate predecessors in office, within the time limited for that purpose. the districts, &c. which have reported.

3. The length of time a school shall have been kept in each of such districts or parts of districts, distinguishing what portion of that time the school shall have been kept by qualified teachers. the length of time a legal school has been kept.

4. The amount of public moneys received in each of such districts, and parts of districts and neighborhoods. amount of public monies received.

5. The number of children taught in each, and the number of children over the age of five and under sixteen years, residing in each. number of children taught.

6. The whole amount of moneys received by the commissioners or their predecessors in office, during the year ending at the date of their report, and since the date of their last preceding report; distinguishing the amount received from the district Treasurer, from the township collector, and from any other, and what source. whole amount of monies received within the year distinguishing the sources.

7. The manner in which such moneys shall have been expended, and whether any, and what part remains unexpended, and for what cause. mode of expenditure.

Clerk of the peace to report commissioners' neglect to township clerk. *And be it, &c.*—That in case the commissioners in any township shall not, on or before the first day of October in any year, make such report to the Clerk of the Peace for the district, it shall be his duty to give immediate notice of such neglect to the clerk of such township.

Forfeiture for neglect.

And be it, &c.—That the commissioners neglecting to make such report within the limited period shall forfeit severally, to their township for the use of the common schools therein, the sum of two pounds ten shillings; and the share of school moneys apportioned to such township for the ensuing year may, in the discretion of the Superintendent of common schools, be withheld, and be distributed among the other townships in the same district, from which the necessary reports shall have been received.

Commissioners liable for amount.

And be it, &c.—That where the share of school moneys apportioned to a township, shall thus be lost to the township by the neglect of its commissioners, the commissioners guilty of such neglect, shall forfeit to their township the full amount, with interest, of the moneys so lost; and for the payment of such forfeiture they shall be jointly and severally liable.

Township clerk to prosecute, &c.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the clerk of the township upon notice of such loss, from the superintendent of common schools, clerk of the peace, or district treasurer, to prosecute without delay in the name of the township for such forfeiture, and the monies recovered shall be distributed and paid by such township clerk to the several districts, parts of districts, or separate neighborhoods of the township, in the same manner as it would have been the duty of the commissioners to have distributed and paid them, if received from the district Treasurer.

Commissioners to keep an account,

And be it, &c.—That the commissioners in each town shall keep a just and true account of all school monies received and expended by them, during the year for which they shall have been chosen, and shall lay the same before the board of auditors of their accounts at the annual meeting of such board in the same year.

And

Render to successors all accounts of monies,

And be it &c.—That the commissioners of common schools in each township, shall, within fifteen days after the termination of their respective offices, render to their successors in office, a just and true account in writing, of all school monies by them respectively received, before the time of rendering such account, and of the manner in which the same shall have been appropriated and expended by them; and the account so rendered, shall be delivered by such successors in office, to the township clerk, to be filed and recorded in his office.

And

(If any)

And be it &c.—That if on rendering such account any balance shall be found remaining in the hands of the commissioners, or any of them, the same shall be immediately paid by him or them, to his or their successors in office, or some one of them. Pay balance.

And be it &c.—That if such balance or any part thereof shall have been appropriated by the commissioners to any particular school district, part of a district, or separate neighbourhood, and shall remain in their hands for the use thereof, a statement of such appropriation shall be made in the account so to be rendered, and the balance paid to such successors in office shall be paid over by them according to such appropriation. If appropriated to be paid accordingly.

And be it &c.—That every commissioner of common schools, who shall refuse or neglect to render such account as is above required, or who shall refuse or neglect to pay over to his successor in office, any balance so found in his hands, or to deliver a statement of the appropriation, if any there be, of such balance, shall for each offence forfeit the sum of twenty-five pounds. Forfeiture for neglect.

And be it &c.—That it shall be the duty of such successors in office, to prosecute without delay, in their name of office for the recovery of such forfeiture, and to distribute and pay the monies recovered, in the same manner as other school monies received by them. Successors to prosecute.

And be it &c.—That such successors in office may bring a suit in their name of office, for the recovery with interest of any unpaid balance of school monies that shall appear to have been in the hands of any previous commissioner on leaving his office, either by the accounts rendered by such commissioner or by other sufficient proof. Suit how brought.

And be it &c.—That in case of the death of such commissioner, such suit may be brought against his representatives, and all monies recovered shall be applied in the same manner as if they had been paid over without suit. Ib.

And be it &c.—That the commissioners of common schools in each township shall have the powers and privileges of a corporation, so far as to enable them to take and hold any property transferred to them for the use of common schools in such township. Corporation.

And be it &c.—That the clerk of the township, by right of office, shall be the clerk of the commissioners of common schools in each township, and it shall be his duty,— Clerk of commissioners his duties.

1. To receive and keep all reports made to the Commissioners, from the Trustees of School Districts, and all the books and papers belonging to the Commissioners, and to file them in his office.

2. To attend all meetings of the Commissioners, and to prepare under their direction, all their reports, esti-

mates and apportionments of school money and to record the same and their other proceedings, in a book to be kept for that purpose.

3. To receive all such communications as may be directed to him by the superintendent of Common Schools, & to dispose of the same in the manner directed therein.

4. To transmit to the Clerk of the Peace for the District, all such reports as may be made to such Clerk by the Commissioners.

5. To call together the Commissioners, upon receiving notice from the Clerk of the Peace that they have not made their annual report, for the purpose of making such report.

And generally to do and execute all such things as belong to his office, and may be required of him by the Commissioners.

Of the inspectors of common schools,
Who *And be it &c.*—That the commissioners of common schools in each township together with the other inspectors elected in their township, shall be the inspectors of common schools for their township.

Their duty as teachers. *And be it &c.*—That it shall be the duty of the inspectors of common schools in each township or any three of them, at a meeting of the inspectors called for that purpose, to examine all persons offering themselves as candidates for teaching common schools in such township.

Ib. *And be it &c.*—That in making such examination it shall be the duty of the inspectors to ascertain the qualifications of the candidate in respect to *moral character*, learning and ability.

Ib. *And be it &c.*—That if the inspectors shall be satisfied in respect to the qualifications of the candidate, they shall deliver to the person so examined, a certificate signed by them, in such form as shall be prescribed by the superintendent of common schools.

Ib. *And be it &c.*—That the inspectors, or any three of them may annul any such certificate given by them or their predecessors in office, when they shall think proper, giving at least ten days previous notice in writing, to the teacher holding it, and to the trustees of the district in which he may be employed, of their intention to annul the same.

Ib. *And be it &c.*—That the inspectors, whenever they shall deem it necessary, may require a re-examination of all or any of the teachers in their township, for the purpose of ascertaining their qualifications to continue as such teachers.

Ib. *And be it &c.*—That the annulling of a certificate shall not disqualify the teacher to whom it was given, until a note in writing thereof, containing the name of the teacher, and the time when his certificate was annulled, shall be made by the inspectors and filed in the office of the clerk of their township.

And be it, &c.—That where any school district shall be composed of a part of two or more townships, or any school house shall stand on the division line of any two townships; the inspectors of either township may examine into and certify the qualifications of any teacher, offering to teach in such district in the same manner as is provided by the preceding sections of this article; and may also in the same manner annual the certificate of such teacher. Ib.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the inspectors to visit all such common schools, within their township as shall be organized according to law, at least once a year, and oftener if they shall deem it necessary. Ib. As to visiting schools.

And be it, &c.—That at such visitation the inspectors shall examine into the state and condition of such schools both as respects the progress of the scholars in learning, and the good order of the schools, and may give their advice and direction to the trustees and teachers of such schools, as to the government thereof, and the course of studies to be pursued therein. Ib.

And be it, &c.—That each of the inspectors, by agreement with or direction of the other inspectors, may be assigned to a certain number of school districts, which it shall be his special duty to visit and inspect. Ib.

And be it, &c.—That whenever any school district shall be formed in any township, by the commissioners of common schools, it shall be the duty of some one or more of the commissioners, within twenty days thereafter, to prepare a notice in writing describing such district, and appointing a time and place for the first district meeting, and to deliver such notice to a taxable inhabitant of the district. Formation of school districts &c. Commissioners to give notice.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of such inhabitant to notify every other inhabitant of the district, qualified to vote at district meetings, by reading the notice in the hearing of such inhabitant, or in case of his absence from home, by leaving a copy thereof, or of so much thereof as relates to the time and place of such meeting at the place of his abode, at least six days before the time of the meeting. Notice for first meeting.

And be it, &c.—That in case such notice shall not be given, or the inhabitants of a district shall refuse or neglect to assemble or form a district meeting, when so notified, or in case any such district, having been formed and organized in pursuance of such notice, shall afterwards be dissolved so that no competent authority shall exist therein to call a special district meeting, in the manner hereinafter provided, such notice shall be renewed by the commissioners, and served in the manner above prescribed. When to be renewed.

Penalty for
not serving
notice:

And be it, &c.—That every taxable inhabitant to whom a notice of a district meeting shall have been properly delivered for service, who shall refuse or neglect to serve the notice in the manner above in this article enjoined, shall for every such offence, forfeit the sum of one pound five shillings.

Inhabitants,
when to as-
semble.

And be it, &c.—That whenever any district meeting shall be called in the manner prescribed in the preceding sections of this article, it shall be the duty of the inhabitants of the district, qualified to vote at district meetings, to assemble together at the time and place mentioned in the notice.

Qualification
of voters.

And be it, &c.—That no person shall vote at any school-district meeting, unless he shall be a freeholder in the township where he votes, or shall have been assessed the same year in which he votes, or the preceding year, to pay taxes therein; or shall possess personal property to the amount of twelve pounds ten shillings, liable to taxation in the district; and every person not so qualified, who shall vote at any such meeting, shall for each offence forfeit the sum of two pounds ten shillings.

Powers of
district meet-
ings.

And be it, &c.—That the inhabitants so entitled to vote when so assembled in such district meeting, or when lawfully assembled at any other district meeting, shall have power, by a majority of the votes of those present—

1st.—To appoint a moderator for the time being.

2d.—To adjourn from time to time, as occasion may require.

3rd.—To choose a district clerk, three trustees, and one district collector, at their first meeting, and as often as such offices or either of them become vacated.

4th.—To designate a site for the district school house.

5th.—To lay such tax on the taxable inhabitants of the district, as the meeting shall deem sufficient to purchase, or lease a suitable site for a school house, and to keep in repair and furnish the same with necessary fuel and appendages.

6th.—To repeal, alter, and modify their proceedings from time to time, as occasion may require.

Annual meet-
ing.

And be it, &c.—That in each school district an annual meeting shall be held, at the time and place previously appointed: at the first district meeting and at each annual meeting, the time and place of holding the next annual meeting shall be fixed.

Special m-
ing.

And be it, &c.—That a special meeting shall be held in each district, whenever called by the trustees; and the proceedings of no district meeting, annual or special, shall be held illegal, for want of a due notice to all the persons qualified to vote thereat, unless it shall appear that the omission to give such notice, was wilful and fraudulent.

And be it, &c.—That no tax to be voted by a district meeting for building, hiring, or purchasing a school house, shall exceed the sum of one hundred pounds, unless the commissioners of common schools of the township in which the school house is to be situated, shall certify in writing their opinion that a larger sum ought to be raised, and shall specify the sum; in which case, a sum not exceeding the sum so specified shall be raised.

Limitation of tax.

And be it, &c.—That if the commissioners of common schools in any township, shall require in writing the attendance of the commissioners of any other township or townships, at a joint meeting, for the purpose of altering a school district, formed from their respective townships and a major part of the commissioners notified, shall refuse or neglect to attend, the commissioners attending, by a majority of votes may call a special district meeting of such district for the purpose of deciding on such proposed alteration; and the decision of such meeting shall be as valid, as if made by the commissioners of all the townships interested, but shall extend no further than to dissolve the district formed from such townships.

Joint meeting of commis'srs.

And be it, &c.—That when a new district shall be formed from one or more districts, possessed of a school house and in cases where any district from which such new district shall be in whole or in part formed, shall be entitled to other property than its school house, then the commissioners of common schools, at the time of forming such new district shall ascertain and determine the amount justly due to such new district, from any district, out of which it may have been in whole or in part formed, as the proportion of such new district, of the value of the school house and other property belonging to the former district, at the time of such division.

Altering dist. school house. disposed of.

And be it, &c.—That such proportion shall be ascertained, according to the taxable property of the inhabitants of the respective parts of such former district, at the time of the division, by the best evidence in the power of the commissioners: and deduction shall be made therein for any debts due from the former district.

Proportion how ascertain ed.

And be it, &c.—That such proportion when ascertained shall be levied, raised and collected, with the fees for collection, by the trustees of the district retaining the school house or other property of the former district, upon the taxable inhabitants of their district, in the same manner as if the same had been authorised by a vote of their district for the building of a school house; and when collected, shall be paid to the trustees of the new district, to be applied by them towards procuring a school house for their

How levied and applied.

district; and the monies so paid to the new district shall be allowed to the credit of the inhabitants who are taken from the former district, in reduction of any tax that may be imposed for erecting a school house.

Dist officers. *And be it, &c.*—That the clerk, trustees, and collector of each school district, shall hold their respective offices, until the annual meeting of such district, next following the time of their appointment, and until others shall be elected in their places.

Tenure.

**Vacancies,
how filled.**

And be it, &c.—That in case any such office shall be vacated by the death, refusal to serve, removal out of the district, or incapacity of any such officer, and the vacancy shall not be supplied by a district meeting within one month thereafter, the commissioners of common schools of the town, may appoint any person residing in such district to supply such vacancy.

Forfeiture.

And be it, &c.—That every person duly chosen or appointed to any such office, who without sufficient cause shall refuse to serve therein, shall forfeit the sum of one pound five shillings; and every person so chosen or appointed, and not having refused to accept, who shall neglect to perform the duties of his office, shall forfeit the sum of two pounds ten shillings.

Resignations

And be it, &c.—That any person chosen or appointed to any such office, may resign the same in this manner: any three commissioners of the Court of Requests of a district may, for sufficient cause shewn to them accept the resignation of any township officer of their township, or of any officer of a school district, and the acceptance of such resignation shall be a bar to the recovery of either of the penalties mentioned in the preceding section. The commissioners of the Court of Requests accepting the resignation shall give notice thereof, to the clerk or to one of the trustees of the school district to which the officer resigning shall belong.

**Duty of dist.
clerk.**

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the clerk of each school district,

1. To record the proceedings of his district in a book to be provided for that purpose by the district, and to enter therein true copies of all reports made by the trustees of his district, to the commissioners of common schools.

2. To give notice of the time and place for special district meetings, when the same shall be called by the trustees of the district, to each inhabitant of such district liable to pay taxes, at least five days before such meeting shall be held, in the manner prescribed by this Act.

**Adjourned
meetings.**

3. To affix a notice in writing of the time and place for any adjourned district meeting, when the same shall be adjourned for a longer time than one month, in at least four of the most public places of such district, at

least five days before the time appointed for such adjourned meeting.

4. To give the like notice of every annual district meeting. Notice of annual meetings.

5. To keep and preserve all records, books and papers belonging to his office, and to deliver the same to his successor in office, in the manner, and subject to the penalties provided by law, in relation to the clerk of the township.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the trustees of every school district, and they shall have power, Duty of trustees.

1. To call special meetings of the inhabitants of such district, liable to pay taxes, whenever they shall deem it necessary and proper.

2. To give notice of special, annual, and adjourned meetings, in the manner prescribed in the last preceding section, if there be no clerk of the district, or he be absent or incapable of acting.

3. To make out a tax list of every district tax, voted by any such meeting; containing the names of all the taxable inhabitants residing in the district at the time of making out the list, and the amount of tax payable by each inhabitant, set opposite to his name.

4. To annex to such tax list a warrant directed to the collector of the district for the collection of the sums in such list mentioned, with five per cent thereof for his fees.

5. To purchase or lease a site for the district school house, as designated by a meeting of the district, and to build, hire, or purchase, keep in repair and furnish such school house, with necessary fuel and appendages, out of the funds collected and paid to them for such purposes.

6. To have the custody and safe keeping of the district school house.

7. To contract with and employ all teachers in the district.

8. To pay the wages of such teachers when qualified, out of the monies which shall come into their hands from the commissioners of common schools, so far as such monies shall be sufficient for that purpose; and to collect the residue of such wages, excepting such sums as may have been collected by the teachers from all persons liable therefor.

9. To divide the public monies received by them, whenever authorised by a vote of their district, into not exceeding four portions for each year; to assign and apply one of such portions to each quarter or term during which a school shall be kept in such district, for the payment of the teacher's wages during such quarter or term; and to collect the residue of such wages, not paid by the proportion of public money allotted for that purpose, from the persons liable therefor, as above provided.

10. To exempt from the payment of the wages of teachers, such indigent persons within the district, as they shall think proper.

11. To certify such exemptions and deliver the certificate thereof to the clerk of the district, to be kept on file in his office.

12. To ascertain, by examination of the school list kept by such teachers, the number of days for which each person not so exempted shall be liable to pay for instruction, and the amount payable by each person.

13. To make out a rate bill, containing the name of each person so liable, and the amount for which he is liable; adding thereto five per cent of the sum due from him, for collectors fees; and to annex thereto a warrant for the collection thereof.

14. To deliver such rate bill, with the warrant annexed, to the collector of the district, who shall execute the same in like manner with other warrants directed to him by them.

Taxes how
apportioned.

And be it, &c.—That in making out a tax list, the Trustees shall apportion the tax on all the taxable inhabitants within their district, according to the valuations of the taxable property which shall be owned or possessed by them, at the time of making out the list, within the district, or which being intersected by the boundaries of the district, shall be owned or possessed by them, partly in such district and partly in any adjoining district; but where taxable property shall be owned by one inhabitant and possessed by another, only one of them shall be taxed therefor.

Ib.

And be it, &c.—That any person owning or holding any real property within any school district, who shall improve and occupy the same by his agent or servant, shall, in respect to the liability of such property to taxation, be considered a taxable inhabitant of such district, in the same manner as if he actually resided therein.

Ib.

And be it, &c.—That if there shall be any real property within a district, cultivated and improved, but not occupied by a tenant or agent, and the owner of which shall not reside within the district, nor be liable to be taxed for the same in an adjoining district, such owner shall be taxable therefor in the same manner as if he were an inhabitant of the district—but no portion of such property, but such as shall be actually cleared and cultivated, shall be included in such taxation.

Valuation how
ascertained.

And be it, &c.—That the valuations of taxable property shall be ascertained as far as possible, from the last assessment roll of the township; and no person shall be entitled to any reduction in the valuation of such property as so ascertained, unless he shall give notice of his claim to such reduction, to the trustees of the district before the tax list shall be made out.

And be it, &c.—That in every case where such reduction shall be duly claimed, and in every case

where the valuation of taxable property cannot be ascertained from the last assessment roll of the township, the trustees shall ascertain the true value of the property to be taxed, from the best evidence in their power, giving notice to the persons interested, and proceeding in the same manner, as the township assessors are required by law to proceed, in the valuations of taxable property.

Ib.

And be it, &c.—That every taxable inhabitant of a district, who shall have been within four years set off from any other district, by the commissioners of common schools, without his consent, and shall, within that period, have actually paid in such other district, under a lawful assessment therein, a district tax for building a school house, shall be exempted by the trustees of the district where he shall reside, from the payment of any tax for building a school house therein.

Exemption in certain cases.

And be it, &c.—That every district tax shall be assessed and the tax list thereof be made out by the trustees, within one month after the district meeting in which the tax shall have been voted.

Time of making tax list.

And be it, &c.—That where any district tax for the purpose of purchasing a site for a school house, or for purchasing or building, keeping in repair or furnishing such school house with necessary fuel and appendages, shall be lawfully assessed and paid by any person, on account of any real property, whereof he is only tenant-at-will, or for three years, or for a less period of time, such tenant may charge the owner of such real estate with the amount of the tax so paid by him, unless some agreement to the contrary shall have been made by such tenant.

Remedy for tenant against owner.

And be it, &c.—That when the necessary fuel for the school of any district shall not be provided by means of a tax on the inhabitants of the district, it shall be the duty of every person sending a child to the school to provide his just proportion of such fuel.

Fuel how provided.

And be it, &c.—That the proportion of fuel which every person sending children to the school shall be liable to provide, shall be determined by the trustees of the district, according to the number of children sent by each; but such indigent persons as in the judgment of the trustees shall be unable to provide the same, shall be exempted from such liability.

Proportion how determined.

And be it, &c.—That when any person liable to provide fuel, shall omit to provide the same, on notice from any one of such trustees, it shall be the duty of the trustees to furnish such fuel and to charge the person so in default, the value of, or amount paid for the fuel furnished.

When trustees to furnish and charge delinquent.

And be it, &c.—That such value or amount may be added to the rate bill of the monies due for in-

Ib. instruction, and may be collected therewith and in the same manner; or the trustees may sue for and recover the same in their own names, with costs of suit.

Warrant. *And be it, &c.*—That the warrant annexed to any tax list or rate bill, shall be under the hands & seals of the trustees or a majority of them, and shall command the collector to collect from every person in such tax list and rate bill named, the sum therein set opposite to his name.

Ib. *And be it, &c.*—That the warrant annexed to any tax list for the collection of a district tax for erecting or repairing any school house, shall command the collector, in case any person named in such list shall not pay the sum therein set opposite to his name, on demand, to levy the same of his goods and chattels, in the same manner as on warrants issued to the collectors of townships.

Trustees may renew or sue delinquent. *And be it, &c.*—That if the sum or sums of money payable by any person named in such tax list or rate bill shall not be paid by him or collected by such warrant within the time therein limited, it shall and may be lawful for the trustees to renew such warrant in respect to such delinquent person; or in case such person shall not reside within their district at the time of making out a tax list or rate bill, or shall not reside therein at the expiration of such warrant, and no goods and chattels can be found therein, whereon to levy the same, the trustees may sue for and recover the same in their name of office.

Annual report of trustees. *And be it, &c.*—That if the monies apportioned to a district by the commissioners of common schools shall not have been paid, it shall be the duty of the trustees thereof to bring a suit for the recovery of the same, with interest, against the commissioners in whose hands the same shall be, or to pursue such other remedy for the recovery thereof as is or shall be given by law; and the monies when recovered, shall be applied by them in the same manner as if they had been paid without suit.

How made. *And be it, &c.*—That the trustees of each district school shall after the first day of January in every year, and on or before the first day of March thereafter, make out and transmit a report in writing to the commissioners of common schools for such township, dated on the first day of January in the year in which it shall be transmitted.

Its contents. *And be it, &c.*—That every such report signed and certified by a majority of the trustees making it, shall be delivered to the township clerk and shall specify.

1. The whole time any school has been kept in their district, during the year ending on the day previous to the date of such report, and distinguishing what portion of the time such school has been kept by qualified teachers.

2. The amount of monies received from the commis-

sioners of common schools during such year, and the manner in which such monies have been expended.

3. The number of children taught in the district during such year.

4 The number of children residing in the district on the last day of December previous to the making of such report, over the age of five years, and under sixteen years of age, (except Indian children otherwise provided for by law), and the names of the parents or other persons with whom such children shall respectively reside, and the number of children residing within each.

And be it, &c.—That no teacher shall be deemed a qualified teacher within the meaning of this act, who shall not have received, and shall not then hold a certificate of qualification, dated within one year, from the inspectors of common schools for the township in which he shall be employed. Qualified teachers.

And be it, &c.—That where a school district is formed out of two or more adjoining townships, it shall be the duty of the trustees of such district, to make and transmit a report to the commissioners of common schools for each of the townships out of which such district shall be formed, within the same time and in the same manner, as is required in this act; distinguishing the number of children over the age of five and under sixteen years, residing in each part of a district, which shall be in a different township from the other parts, and the number of children taught, and the amount of school monies received for each part of the district. District formed from 2 townships, how to report.

And be it, &c.—That where any neighborhood shall be set off by itself, the inhabitants of such separate neighborhood shall annually meet together, and choose one trustee; whose duty it shall be every year, within the time limited for making district reports, to make and transmit a report, in writing, bearing date on the first day of January, of the year in which it shall be transmitted, to the commissioners of common schools of the township from which such neighbourhood shall be set off, specifying the number of children over the age of five and under sixteen years, residing in such neighborhood; the amount of monies received from the commissioners since the date of his last report, and the manner in which the same have been expended. Separate neighborhoods how to report.

And be it, &c.—That every trustee of a school district, or separate neighborhood, who shall sign a false report to the commissioners of common schools of his township, with the intent of causing such commissioners to apportion and pay to his district or neighbourhood a larger sum than its just proportion of the school monies of the township, shall, for each offence, forfeit the sum of six pounds five shillings, and shall also be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor. Penalty for false reports.

Property of districts how held. *And be it, &c.*—That all property now vested in the trustees of any school district, for the use of schools in the district, or which may be hereafter transferred to such trustees for that purpose, shall be held by them as a corporation.

Trustees to account. *And be it, &c.*—That the trustees of each school district shall on the expiration of their offices, render to their successors in office, and to the district, at a district meeting, a just and true account, in writing, of all monies received by them respectively, for the use of their district, and of the manner in which the same shall have been expended; which account shall be delivered to the district clerk, and be filed by him.

Balance paid to successors. *And be it, &c.*—That any balance of such monies which shall appear from such account to remain in the hands of the trustees, or either of them, at the time of rendering the account, shall immediately be paid to some one or more of their successors in office.

Forfeitures or neglect for negligence. *And be it, &c.*—That every trustee who shall refuse or neglect to render such account, or to pay over any balance so found in hands, shall, for each offence, forfeit the sum of six pounds five shillings.

How prosecuted. *And be it, &c.*—That it shall be the duty of his successors in office to prosecute without delay in their name of office, for the recovery of such forfeiture, and the monies recovered shall be applied by them to the use and benefit of their district school.

Remedy ag't former trust's. *And be it, &c.*—That such successors shall also have the same remedies for the recovery of an unpaid balance in the hands of a former trustee, or his representatives, as are given to the commissioners of common schools against a former commissioner and his representatives; and the monies recovered shall be applied by them to the use of their district, in the same manner as if they had been paid without suit.

Bonds to be delivered. *And be it, &c.*—That all bonds or securities, taken by the trustees from the collector of their district, shall on the expiration of their office, be delivered over by them to their successors in office.

Fees of collection. *And be it, &c.*—That the collector of each school district shall be allowed five per cent on all sums collected and paid over by him.

His duty in collecting tax. *And be it, &c.*—That it shall be his duty to collect and pay over to the trustees of his district, some or one of them, all monies which he shall be required by warrant to collect, within the time limited in such warrant for its return, and to take the receipt of such trustee or trustees for payment.

To give bond. *And be it, &c.*—That every collector of a school district, shall before receiving any warrant for the collection of monies execute a bond to the trustees of his district when required by them, in their corporate name, with one or more sureties, to be approved by one or more of the trustees, in double the amount of taxes to be collected, conditioned for the due and faithful execution of the duties of his office.

And be it, &c.—That if any collector shall not execute such bond within the time allowed him by the trustees for that purpose, which shall not be less than ten days his office shall be vacated, and the trustees may appoint any other person residing in the district, as collector in his place. If not how to proceed.

And be it, &c.—That if, by the neglect of the collector, any monies shall be lost to his district, which might have been collected within the time limited in the warrant delivered to him for their collection, he shall forfeit to his district the full amount of the monies thus lost, and shall account for and pay over the same to the trustees of his district, in the same manner as if they had been collected. Forfeiture for neglect.

And be it, &c.—That for the recovery of all forfeitures, and of balances in the hands of a collector which he shall have neglected to pay over, the trustees of the district may sue in their name of office; and shall be entitled to recover the same with interest and costs, and the monies recovered shall be applied by them in the same manner as if paid without suit. Trustees may sue.

And be it, &c.—That any person considering himself aggrieved in consequence of any decision made.

1. By any school district meeting.

2. By the commissioners of common schools, in the forming or altering, or in refusing to form or alter any school district, or in refusing to pay any school monies to any such district. Appeal no superintendent

3. By the trustees of any district in paying any teacher or refusing to admit any scholar gratuitously into any school.

4. Or concerning any other matter under the present article;

May appeal to the superintendent of common schools, whose decision thereon shall be final.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of each Clerk of the Peace for the district, between the first day of October, and the first day of December, in every year, to make & transmit to the superintendent of common schools, a report, in writing, containing the whole number of townships in his district, distinguishing the townships from which the necessary reports have been made to him by the commissioners of common schools, and containing a certified copy of all such reports. Of certain duties of the clerk of the peace for the district

And be it, &c.—That every Clerk of the Peace who shall refuse or neglect to make such report, within the period so limited, shall, for each offence, forfeit the sum of twenty five pounds to the use of the school fund of the Province. Penalty for neglect.

And be it, &c.—That it shall be the duty of the superintendent of common schools to prosecute without delay, in his name of office, for such forfeiture, and to pay the monies recovered, into the treasury of the Province, to the credit of the school fund. How prosecuted & applied.

Notice to cl'ks of townships. *And be it, &c.*—That it shall be the duty of each Clerk of the Peace, after the first day of October in every year, in case the commissioners of common schools, of any township in his district, shall have neglected to make to him their annual report, to give notice of such neglect to the clerk of the township who shall immediately assemble such commissioners for the purpose of making their report.

Site of school house, how changed.

And be it, &c.—That whenever a school house shall have been built, or purchased for a district, the site of such school house shall not be changed, nor the building thereon be removed, as long as the district shall remain unaltered, unless by the consent in writing, of the commissioners of common schools, or a majority of them, of the township or townships within which such district shall be situated, stating that in their opinion such removal is necessary; nor then, unless two-thirds of all those present at a special meeting of such district, called for that purpose and qualified to vote therein, shall vote for such removal and in favor of such new site.

Vote by ayes and nays.

And be it, &c.—That such vote shall be taken by ayes and nays, and the name of each voter with the vote that he shall give, shall be entered by the clerk in the records of such school district.

Notices.

And be it, &c.—That every notice of a district meeting called in pursuance of this Act, shall state the purpose for which such meeting is called.

Sale of school lot & building.

And be it, &c.—That whenever a site of a school house shall have been changed as herein provided, by the inhabitants of the district entitled to vote, lawfully assembled at any district meeting, such meeting shall have power, by a majority of the votes of those present, to direct the sale of the former site or lot, and the buildings thereon, and appurtenances, or any part thereof, at such price and upon such terms as they shall deem most advantageous to the district, and any deed duly executed by the trustees of such district, or a majority of them, in pursuance of such direction shall be valid and effectual to pass all the estate or interest of such school district, in the premises intended to be conveyed thereby, to the grantee named in such deed; and when a credit shall be directed to be given upon such sale, for the consideration money, or any part thereof, the trustees are hereby authorised to take, in their corporate name, such security by bond and mortgage, or otherwise, for the payment thereof, as they shall deem best, and shall hold the same as a corporation, and account therefor to their successors in office and to the district, in the manner they are now required by law to account for monies received by them; and the trustees of any such district for the time being may, in their name of office, sue for and recover the monies due and unpaid upon any security so taken by them or their predecessors in office, with interest and costs.

And be it, &c.—That all monies arising from any sale made in pursuance of the last preceding section, shall be appropriated to the payment of the expenses incurred in procuring a new site, and in removing or erecting a school house, or either of them, so far as such application thereof shall be necessary.

And be it, &c.—That whenever the permanently available school funds of this Province, shall exceed ten thousand pounds per annum by not less than one thousand pounds, one thousand pounds annually shall be set apart and appropriated by the superintendent towards the endowment and support of four schools in this Province for the education of teachers, three of which shall be for the education and qualification of male teachers, and one for the education and qualification of female teachers within this Province; and that the same shall be located in such parts of the Province as shall be provided by some future Act of the Legislature.

Avails how to be applied
Provision for
educat'g male
and female
teachers.

And be it, &c.—That it shall and may be lawful for any school district in any township in this Province, when two thirds of the taxable inhabitants of that school district shall think fit, and shall by their vote, authorize the levying and collecting a tax for the same, to the amount of any sum, not exceeding one hundred pounds, except as is provided for raising a larger sum than one hundred pounds for building a school house to be raised, levied and collected in the same manner as the tax for building a school house is, by this act authorised to be raised, levied and collected; to authorise the trustees of such school district to raise, levy and collect the monies so voted, and therewith to purchase or lease a lot or parcel of land, farming utensils, seeds, grains and grasses for the use, benefit and behoof of that district, for the use of the teachers of the school, or to be annually apportioned among the scholars of the school; or otherwise employed and occupied, for the profit and instruction of the school or parts thereof, in horticulture, agriculture, or otherwise, growing plants, fruits, grasses and grains, as the trustees together with the school teacher for the time being may think fit; and the avails and profits thereof to be applied, laid out, given and expended in the advancement of the true interests of that school district, to the scholars cultivating the same or otherwise, according to just and equitable principles as the said trustees, together with the teacher may think fit.

Garden, &c.
plot provided
for.

And be it, &c.—That it shall and may be lawful for any school district in any township in this Province, when two-thirds of the taxable inhabitants of that school district shall think fit, and shall by their vote

Mechanical
arts.

authorise the levying and collecting a tax for the same to the amount of any sum not exceeding one hundred pounds, excepting as is provided in the preceding section to be raised, levied and collected, in the same manner as the tax for building a school-house is by this act authorised to be raised, levied and collected, to authorise the trustees of such school district, to raise, levy, and collect the monies so voted, and therewith to purchase or lease any shop, work-house, mechanical tools and materials, for the purpose of enabling the scholars of the school taught in that district profitably to employ a portion of their time in the acquiring a knowledge of such mechanical skill, art, business or profession, as the trustees together with the school teacher of such district shall think fit, and to apply the profits of the business to the best interests of the district as they may deem expedient.

Act when to take effect. *And be it, &c.*—That this Act shall take effect immediately after its passage.

APPENDIX.

Form of a District rate bill, or tax list. (This form is to be used when a tax is voted for fuel, or when a school bill is to be collected by warrant.) When the warrant is attached to rate bill for teachers wages, instead of the valuation of "*real and personal estate*," (as in the second form) the caption may be made thus;—the warrant attached, to be the same in both cases.

RATE BILL of the persons liable for teachers wages, in district No. ———, in the township of ———, for the school term ending ——— 18—.

NAMES.	No. of days sent.	Amount of School Bill including Collectors fees.
A. B., &c.	100	0 5 3

LIST of TAXES payable by the following persons,
taxable inhabitants of District No. ——— in
the Township of ——— made by the Trustees
of said District, on the ——— day of ———
18 , in conformity to law.

NAMES.	Valuation of Real Estate.	Personal Es- tate.	Total.	Amount of Taxes.
A. B....	£ 250	£ 50	£300	£ 1 10
C. D....	375	125	500	2 10
E. F....	500	200	700	3 10

District of } To the collector of school District
ss. } No. in the township of Form of
in the district aforesaid, greeting : warrant.

You are hereby commanded and required to col-
lect, from each of the inhabitants in the annexed
tax list, or rate bill, named, the sum of money set
opposite to his name in said list, and within thirty
days after receiving this warrant, to pay the amount
thereof collected by you (retaining five per cent for
your fees,) into the hands of the trustees of said dis-
trict, or some or one of them, and take his or their
receipt therefor; and if any of the said inhabitants
shall not pay such sum, on demand, you are hereby
further commanded to levy the same of his goods
and chattles, together with the costs and charges of
such levy and sale, in the same manner as on exe-
cutions issued by a commissioner of the court of
Requests.

Given under our hands and seals this
day of 18

A. B. [L. S.] }
C. D. [L. S.] } Trustees.
E. F. [L. S.] }

The tax list must be made out within one month
after the district meetings in which the tax was voted.
The collector in executing this warrant will proceed
in the same manner as on an execution issued by a
commissioner of the court of Requests.

Note

[When a tax is voted for building or repairing a
school house, the caption as on page , for taxes
for fuel, will be followed, and the warrent annexed
to such tax list, and valuation, will be in the follow-
ing form:]

District of } To the collector of school district
ss. } number in the township of
in the district of greeting :

You are hereby commanded and required to col-
lect, from each of the inhabitants of said district, in
the annexed tax list, named, the sum of money set

opposite to his name in said list, and within thirty days after receiving this warrant, to pay the amount thereof collected by you, (retaining your fees for collection,) into the hands of the trustees of said district, or some or one of them, and take his or their receipt therefor: and in case any person named in such list, shall not pay the sum therein set opposite to his name, on demand, you are hereby commanded to levy the same by distress and sale of the goods and chattles of the said delinquent, in the same manner as on warrants issued by the commissioners of the courts of request to the collectors of taxes.

Given under our hands and seals, this _____ day of _____ in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and _____.

A. B.	[L. S.]	} Trustees.
C. D.	[L. S.]	
E. F.	[L. S.]	

Form of a Bond to be given by a District Collector.

Know all men by these presents, that we, A. B. and C. D. (the collector and his surety) are held and firmly bound to E. F. and G. H. &c, trustees of school district number _____ in the township of _____ in the sum of [here insert a sum double the amount to be collected] to be paid to the said E. F. G. H. &c., trustees as aforesaid, or to the survivor or survivors of them, or their assigns, trustees of said district, to the which payment, well and truly to be made, we bind ourselves, our heirs, executors, and administrators firmly by these presents. Sealed with our seals, and dated this _____ day of _____ 18—, &c.

The condition of this obligation is such, that, whereas the above bounden A. B. has been chosen (or appointed as the case may be) collector of the above mentioned school district number _____ in the township of _____ in conformity to the Act for the support of common schools; now, therefore, if he the said A. B. shall well and truly collect and pay over, after deducting five per cent as his fees, the monies assessed upon the taxable inhabitants of said district, in a rate bill or tax list, dated the _____ day of _____ 18— and this day received by the said collector, which assessment amounts to a total sum of _____ pounds _____ shillings and _____ pence, and shall in all respects duly and faithfully execute the said warrant; and all the duties of his office as collector of such district; then this obligation shall be void, otherwise of full force and virtue.

Signed, sealed, and delivered {	A. B. [L.S.]
in presence of }	C. D. [L.S.]

APPENDIX TO REPORT ON EDUCATION. 251

Form of the apportionment of Fuel, to be made by the Trustees, when the same has not been provided by a tax on the District.

We, the trustees of district No. — in the township of — do certify that each person whose name is hereunto annexed, is liable to provide the proportion of fuel set opposite his name, for the use of the school in said district, v z:

NAMES.	No. of Children sent.	Amount of Wood.
A. B	2 children	1 cord.....
C. D.....	4 do.	2 do.
E F.....	6 do.	3 do.

Given under our hands at — this — day of — 18—.

A. B. }
C. D. } Trustees.
E. F. }

Form of a District Report to be made by the Trustees to the Commissioners of Common Schools.

To the Commissioners of Common Schools in the Township of —.

We, the trustees of school district number — in said township, in conformity with the statute for the support of common schools, do certify and report, that the whole time any school has been kept in our district during the year ending on the date hereof, and since the date of the last report, for said district, is [*here insert the whole time any school has been kept in the district school house, although for a part of that time it may have been kept by teachers not approved by the inspectors*] and that the time during said year, and since last said report, such school has been kept by a teacher (or teachers as the case may be) duly appointed and approved in all respects according to law, is [*here insert same with precision.*] That the amount of money received in our district from the commissioners of common schools, during the said year, and since the date of the said last report, is [*here insert the whole amount, although it may have been received in whole or in part, by predecessors in office*] and that the said sum has been applied to the payment of the compensation of teachers employed in said district, and qualified as the statute prescribes. That the number of children taught in said district, during said year, and since last said report, is [*here insert same, not by conjecture, but by reference to the teacher's list or other authentic sources*] and that the number of children residing in our district on the last day of December last, who are over five and under sixteen years of age, is [*here insert the number taking in such only as permanently resided in the district on the last day of December, and who are then over five and under sixteen years of age*] and that the names of the parents, or other persons with whom such children respectively reside, and the number residing with each, are as follows, viz:

PARENTS, &c.	No. OF CHILDREN.
A. B.....	5.....
C. D.....	3.....
E. F.....	2.....

252 APPENDIX TO REPORT ON EDUCATION.

And we further report, that our school has been visited by the inspectors of common schools, or one of them during the year preceding this report, [*once in each quarter; or more, or less, or not at all, as the case may be,*] and that the sum paid for teachers' wages, over and above the public monies apportioned to said district, during the same year, amounts to £ ——— [*this blank is to be filled with the sum total of all the school bills for the year, which are made out after applying the school money to the payment of teachers' wages.*]

Dated at ——— this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ———.

A. B. }
C. D. } Trustees.
E. F. }

Form of a district report, where the district is formed out of two or more adjoining townships:

To the Commissioners of Common Schools of the Township of ———.

We, the trustees of school district number ——— formed, partly out of the said township, and partly out of the adjoining township of ——— do in conformity with the statute for the support of common schools certify and report.

That the whole time any school has been kept in our district during the year ending on the date hereof, and since the date of the last report for said district, is [*here insert the whole time any school has been kept in the district school house, although for a part of that time it may have been kept by teachers, not approved by the inspectors*] and that the time during said year, and since the last report such school has been kept by a teacher, [*or teachers, as the case may be,*] duly appointed and approved in all respects according to law, is [*here insert the same with precision*] that the total amount of money received by said district, from the commissioners of common schools of the respective townships out of which said district is formed, since the date of the last annual report of said district, is [*here insert the whole amount, although it may have been received in whole or in part, by predecessors in office,*] and that the said sum has been applied to the payment of the compensation of teachers employed in said district, and qualified as the statute prescribes.

That the number of children taught in said district, during said year, and since said last report, is [*here insert same, not by conjecture, but by reference to the teacher's list, or other authentic sources,*] and that the number of children residing in our district, on the last day of December last, who are over five and under sixteen years of age, is [*here insert the number, taking in such only as permanently resided in the district, on said day, and who were then over five and under sixteen years of age.*] and that the names of the parents, or other persons with whom such children respectively reside, and the number residing with each, are as follows, viz:

PARENTS.	NUMBER OF CHILDREN
A. B.	5
C. D.	3
E. F.	2

And we do further specify and report, that of the said sum of money so as above stated to have been received in our said district, the sum of [*here state the same*] was received for, and on account of that

part of said district lying in the said township of _____ and the sum of _____ for and on account of the other part thereof, lying and being in said township of _____ that of the said children, so as above stated to have been taught in our said district, the number belonging to that part of said district, lying in the said township of _____ is _____ and that the number belonging to the other part thereof, lying in the said township of _____ is _____

That of the said children, between the said ages of five and sixteen years, so as above stated to reside in our district, the number residing in that part of said district, lying in the said township of _____ is _____ and that the number residing in the other part thereof, lying in the said township of _____ is _____

We further report that our school has been visited by the inspectors of common schools, or one of them, during the year preceding this report; [*once in each quarter, or more or less, or not at all, as the case may be*] and the sum paid for teachers' wages, over and above the public monies apportioned to said district, during the same year, amounts to _____ pounds _____ shillings and _____ pence, of which the sum of _____ pounds _____ shillings and _____ pence, were paid by that part of the district lying in the township of _____, and _____ pounds _____ shillings _____ pence, by the part lying in the township of _____ [*This blank is to be filled with the sum total of all the school bills for the year, which are made out after applying the school money to the payment of teachers' wages.*]

Dated at _____ this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and _____

A. B. }
C. D. } Trustees.
E. F. }

Form of notice for a special district meeting.

To the Clerk of District No. _____

The Trustees of district No. _____ at a meeting held for the purpose, have resolved that a special meeting be called at the school house on the _____ day of _____ 18 _____ at _____ o'clock, noon, of that day, for the purpose of [*choosing a collector in place of a A. B. removed, or whatever the object of the meeting may be*] and for the transaction of such other business as the meeting may deem necessary.

You will therefore notify each taxable inhabitant of the district, by reading this notice in his hearing, or if he is absent from home, by leaving a copy of it, or so much as relates to the time and place of meeting, at the place of his abode, at least five days before such meeting.

Dated at _____ this _____ day of _____ 18 _____

A. B. }
C. D. } Trustees.
E. F. }

Form of notice for an adjourned District Meeting, to be posted up in the district.

SCHOOL DISTRICT NOTICE.

Notice is hereby given, that a meeting of the freeholders and inhabitants of this school district, authorised by law to vote therein, will be held at _____ on the _____ day of _____ next [*or instant, as the case may be*] at _____ o'clock in the _____ noon, pursuant to adjournment.

Dated at school district No. _____ in the township of _____ this _____ day of _____ A. D. 18 _____

A. B. District Clerk.

N.B.—If it be the annual meeting, it should be so termed in the notice.

These notices are to be posted up in four of the most public places in the district, at least five days before the annual, or any other meeting which has been adjourned for more than one month.

Form of minutes to be kept by the District Clerk of proceedings of District Meetings.

At a meeting of the freeholders and inhabitants of school district number in the township of , held pursuant to adjournment, at on the day of 18 , (or if it be the annual meeting, say, "at an annual meeting of, &c. held pursuant to appointment and public notice, at &c."—or if it be a special meeting, say, "at a special meeting of, &c. called by the trustees of said district, and held pursuant to special notice, at, &c. on the day of, &c.) A. B. was chosen moderator, and C. D. was present as district clerk, (or if the clerk be not present, say E. F. was appointed clerk, pro tem.)

Resolved unanimously, (or by a majority of votes present, as the case may be) here enter the proceedings of the district in the form of resolutions, and with as much precision and certainty as possible.
Let the minutes of the proceedings always be signed by the Moderator and clerk, in the district book.

ALTERING SITE OF SCHOOL HOUSE.

In order to change the site of the school house, as provided by this Act, it is necessary :

1st. To obtain the written consent of a major part of the commissioners of the township, or of each township to which the district belongs

2d. To call a special meeting in the notification of which, the purpose of the meeting shall be stated.

3rd. To obtain the concurrence of two thirds of the qualified voters of the district, when thus specially called together.

4. To have the vote taken by ayes and nays, and the name of each person and the vote he gave, taken and recorded.

In taking the vote by ayes and nays, it will be necessary for the clerk to make a list of the names of the voters present, with two columns at the end of the names, one headed "aye," and the other "nay."

To ascertain the ayes and nays, the names are called over, and if the voter is in favor of the motion, a mark is made opposite his name under "aye." If against it, a like mark is made under "nay."

	AYE.	NAY.
Mr. Morehouse.....	—	—
Mr. Curtis.....	—	—
Mr. Budd.....	—	—
Mr. Carrol.....	—	—
Mr. Bettis.....	—	—
Mr. Hough.....	—	—
	4	2

The Clerk will record these proceedings in the district book, in the following form :

At a meeting of the freeholders and inhabitants of district No. in the township of , held at the school house, in pursuance of notice to all the taxable inhabitants of said district, on the day of , A. B. was chosen moderator and C. D. was present, as district clerk, (or E. F. was appointed clerk, pro tem.) the written consent of the commissioners of common schools having been read, stating, that in their opinion, the removal of the site of the school house in said district is necessary, and the subject having been submitted to the meeting and the question taken by ayes and nays, it

was carried (or lost) two thirds of all those present at such special meeting having (or not as the case may be) voted for such removal, and in favor of such new site. Those who voted in the affirmative were Mr. Morehouse, Mr. Budd, Mr. Corrol, and Mr. Hough; those who voted in the negative were Mr. Curtis and Mr. Bettis.

Ayes—4.

Nays—2.

COMMISSIONERS AND INSPECTORS.

The following provisions relate to the commissioners and inspectors of common schools.

"Commissioners of common schools must be electors of the township for which they are chosen."

"Every person chosen commissioner or inspector of common schools, before he enters on the duties of his office, and within ten days after he shall be notified of his election, shall cause to be filed in the office of the township clerk, a notice in writing, signifying his acceptance of such office."

"If any person chosen or appointed to either of the offices named in the last section, shall not cause such notice to be filed, such neglect shall be deemed a refusal to serve."

"If any person chosen commissioner or inspector of common schools, shall refuse to serve therein, he shall forfeit for the use of the township, the sum of two pounds ten shillings."

"In each township, the township commissioners and township clerk, or any two of them, shall constitute a board of auditors to examine the accounts of the commissioners of common schools of such township, for monies received and disbursed by them. The board of auditors of township accounts shall meet for the purpose of examining the same annually, in each township in this province, on the Tuesday preceding the annual township meeting to be held in such township."

"The electors of each township shall have power, at their annual township meeting, to establish the compensation of the commissioners and inspectors of common schools."

COMMISSIONERS OF SCHOOLS.

Form of proceedings of commissioners in relation to forming and altering school districts.

The commissioners of common schools of the township of _____ having met at the house of _____ in said township in pursuance of previous notice to each of the commissioners, do hereby adopt the following resolution in relation to the division of said township into school districts, viz:

Resolved unanimsously, [or by a major part of the commissioners as the case may be,] that district No. 1, shall consist of Lots Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4; district No. 2, of Lots No. 5, 6, &c. [here, the boundaries of the district should be fully set forth: and where the district is described by giving the names of the inhabitants, the addition should be made, of the land occupied by the several persons named. This will prevent cavil in case the occupancy is changed. Where an individual is transferred from one district to another, the resolution ought to express, whether it was done with or without his consent, as this fact is material in case he claims an exemption from tax under section _____. In altering a district, the consent of the trustees should be annexed to the resolution of the commissioners as follows:

"We consent to the above alteration of district No. _____"

Dated _____

A. B. }
C. D. } Trustees.
E. F. }

NOTE—[If the trustees or a major part of them, will not consent, then the commissioners should give notice, in writing, to one or more of them, setting forth the alteration made, viz:]

"To the trustees of school district No. _____. Please to take notice, that we have this day altered your school district in the following manner—[here give a particular description of the alteration—and that said alteration will take effect after three months from the service of this notice.

Dated at _____ this _____ day of _____ 18 _____

A. B. }
C. D. } Commissioners of Common Schools.

(This notice, or the consent of the trustees, should form a part of the description which is given to the township clerk for recording; and if it is the notice, a commissioner should annex his certificate, that a copy of the notice was duly served on one of the trustees, giving the date of such service.)

[Whenever a new district shall be formed, one or more of the commissioners must prepare a notice in the following form, directed to one of the taxable inhabitants of the district, viz:]

TO A TAXABLE INHABITANT OF DISTRICT No. _____

SIR—By virtue of the statute relating to common schools, you are hereby required to notify, (by reading this notice in his hearing, or in case of his absence from home, by leaving a copy thereof, or so much as relates to the time and place of meeting, at the place of his abode) each of the taxable inhabitants residing in district No. _____ and described as follows, viz: [here give the bonus and description of the district] to meet at _____ in the township of _____ on the _____ day of _____ at _____ o'clock, in the _____ noon, to elect district officers, and to transact such other business as may be necessary in the organization of said district.

Dated at _____ this _____ day of _____ 18 _____

A. B. Commissioner.

[In forming a district from two or more townships, the above notice should be signed by one commissioner from each township.]

Form of the annual Report of the Commissioners of Common Schools

To the Superintendent of common schools, of the Province of Upper Canada.

We, the commissioners of common schools of the township of _____ in the district _____

of _____ in conformity to the statute in relation to common schools, do report that the number of entire school districts in our township organized according to law is (_____) and that the number of parts of school districts in said township is (_____), that the number of entire districts from which the necessary reports have been made for the present year, within the time limited by law is (_____), and that the number of parts of districts from which such reports have been made is (_____), that from the said reports, the following is a just and true abstract, viz:—

Parts of Districts.	Districts.	No.	Districts and parts of Districts from which reports have been made
TOTAL			
			Whole length of time that any school hath been kept therein.
		Mos.	Days.
		Mos.	Days.
			Length of time such school has been kept by approved teachers.
			Amount of Money Received.
			Number of children taught.
			Number of children over five and under sixteen.
			Amount paid for teachers wages besides public monies.
			Number of times each school has been inspected

And we the said commissioners, do further certify and report, that the whole amount of money received by us, or our predecessors in office, for the use of common schools, during the year ending on the date of this report, and since the date of the last report for our township is _____, of which sum the part received from the district treasurer is _____, the part from the township collector is _____.

[and if there be any other source from which any part has been received, here state it particularly], that the said sum of money has been apportioned and paid to the several districts from which the necessary reports were received by the commissioners. That the school books most in use in the common schools in our township, are the following, viz: [here specify the principal books used.]

the first day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and

A. B. }
C. D. } Commissioners.
E. F. }

NOTE—The commissioners in making their annual report, should be careful when they make the abstract of districts formed from two or more townships, to include in their report of their township, only such of the children between five and sixteen and those taught, as reside in that part of the district belonging to the same township, for which the commissioners are making their report, and in putting down in the commissioners report the amount paid for teachers' wages, over and above public money, the same rule should be observed.

(The above report must be made and transmitted to the Clerk of the Peace for the district, between the first day of July and the first day of October. The columns of figures should be added up by the commissioners. The Clerk of the Peace, between the first of October and the first of December should transmit to the superintendent of common schools, a report containing a list of the townships in his district, distinguishing the townships from which the necessary reports have been made to him, together with a certified copy of all such reports.)

INSPECTORS OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

1. Three inspectors are required to sign the certificate for a teacher ; and three should hold a meeting for the examination of a teacher.
2. The commissioners are by virtue of their offices authorised to act as inspectors
3. Teachers are required to be inspected and to obtain certificates every year.
4. It is the duty of the inspectors to visit each school, at least once in each year.
5. The inspectors are allowed such compensation as may be decided upon by a vote of the township meeting.

Form of a Certificate to be given to a Teacher.

DO CERTIFY that at a meeting of the inspectors called for that purpose, we have examined [here insert the name of the teacher] and do believe that he [or she, as the case may be] is well qualified in respect to moral character, learning and ability, to instruct a common school, in this township, for one year from the date hereof.

Given under our hands at

2318

day of

18

A. B. }
C. D. } *Inspectors of Common Schools*
E. F. }

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TO THE REPORT OF THE SELECT COMMITTEE ON E D U C A T I O N,

2ND SESSION, 12TH PARLIAMENT, 1336.



Authority to the Commissioners.....	3
Authority to Dr. C. Duncombe, acting commissioner..	1b
Report transmitted to Mr. Speaker by commissioners..	1b
Parliamentary Reports on various subjects transmitted by Secretary of State.....	4

REPORT of Dr. C. Duncombe, acting commissioner,
to Messrs. Commissioners Morrison & Bruce.... 5 to 68

CONTAINING THE FOLLOWING ITEMS :

General acknowledgment of assistance rendered to him.....	5
Enumeration of books, and various papers used as the basis of the Report.....	7
Observations on schools for the poorer classes and the <i>normal schools</i> ..	10
United States destitute of a system of national education.....	11
Educational reform becoming general...	12
Objects of education.....	13 & 18
Religion needs education to make an enlightened Philanthropist.....	22
Views on the study of the classics.....	23
Proper organization of a board of instruction of great moment and difficult attainment.....	26
Present system of salary, &c. to college officers an evil.....	27
Their duties considered.....	28
Government, classification, and graduation of students.....	30
The present time auspicious for literary reform..	37
Report of Victor M. Cousins recommended to be read.....	38
Method proposed to remedy the evil of present system of school teaching.....	1b
Observations on female education.....	39
Remedy for evil of present system of female in- struction.....	40

Observations on woman.....	41
Instruction for females.....	42
<i>Practical</i> opinion in systems of education.....	46
Universally acknowledged principles of religious truth and of morals are alone needed for moral education.....	49
Sectarian teaching commended.....	50
Every denomination injured in its most vital interests, were religious influences banished from education.....	1b & 53
Religious influences whether taught by the united or separate action of religious sects, a matter of secondary consequence.....	51
Reasons for neglect of moral and religious education	1b
The world is making great experiments in education	52
Instanced in England, France and Prussia.....	1b
Upper Canada exhorted to exert itself.....	54
Methods proposed.....	55
European and American Temperance Societies, report that 7-10ths of common drunkards cannot read or write	57
Education among prisoners in different places of confinement.....	1b
Increasing prosperity of the United States contributes to diffusion of Education.....	59
Observations on the Bill submitted with the Report	60
General Literary Convention recommended ...	62
Common School System in United States as defective as ours.....	63
Inspectors of School Teachers recommended..	64
New Era in Science and Literature... ..	1b
Inductive system.....	65
Ignorance bound a thousand years.....	66
Rev. Mr. Peers, of Louisville, teaches self-government and self-instruction.... ..	1b
Advantages of the inductive system.....	67
Extract from Lord Brougham.....	1b

APPENDIX TO REPORT.

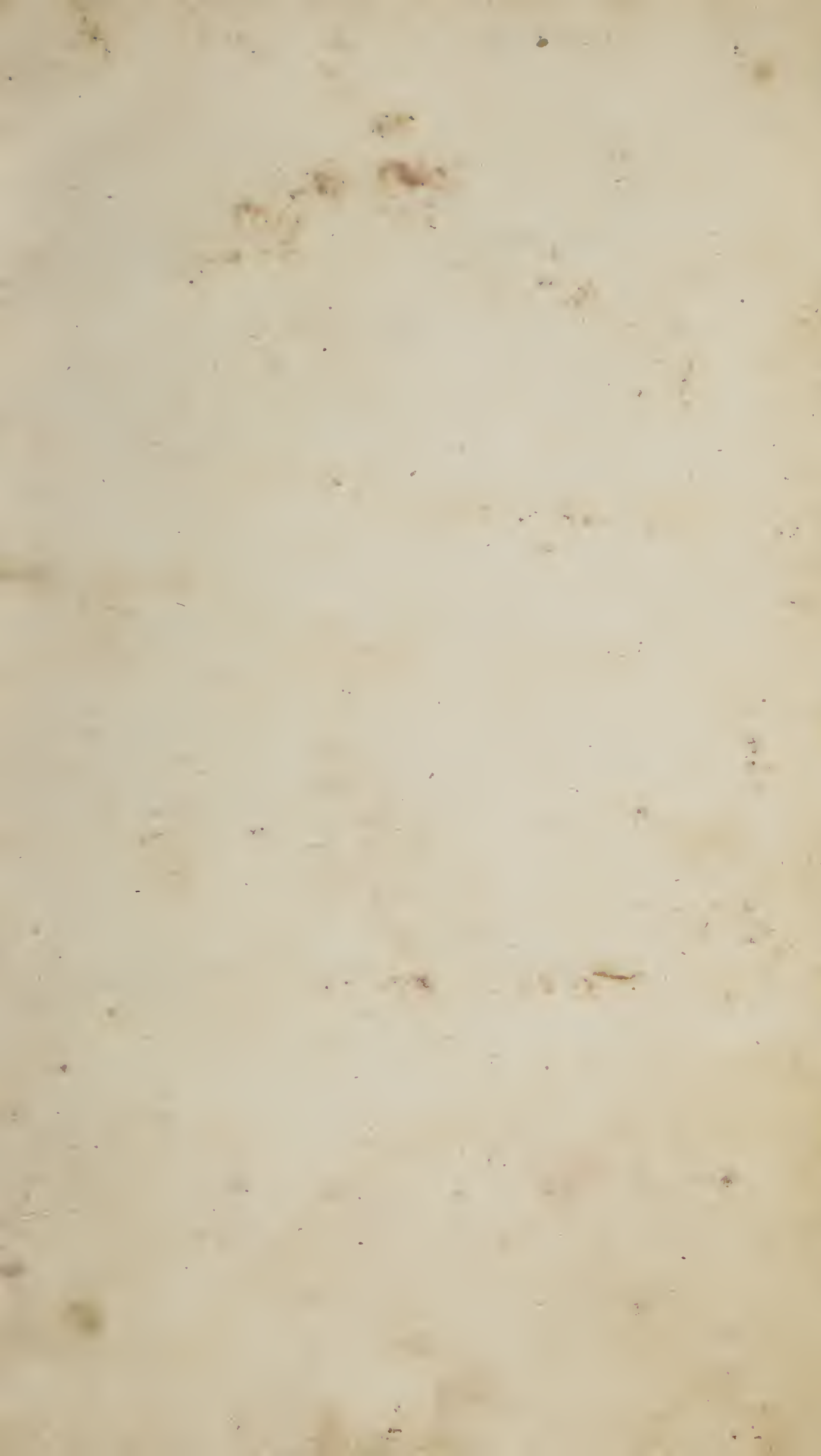
Extract from M. Cousin's Report, and Preface to the English edition.....	69 to 84
Regulations of the School Committee of Boston.....	84 to 93

CONTAINING:

Regulations for Board of School Committee.....	84
“ for Common Schools under superintendence of school committee....	87
“ for English grammar & writing schools	91
“ for English high schools.....	93

Address of trustees of New England institution for deaf and dumb.....	95
Report of a Committee of the Regents of the University of the State of New York, on education of common School Teachers.....	110 }
Extracts from annual Report of Superintendent of common Schools in the State of New York for the year 1835.	to 144 }
CONTAINING :	to 161 }
Number of children taught.....	144
Estimates of expenditures of the School monies	145
Commissioners of common schools.....	146
Inspectors of do. do.....	Ib
Trustees of School Districts.....	149
Inhabitants of do. do.....	150
Education of Common School Teachers.....	152
School District Libraries.....	154
General observations.....	156
Abstract from returns of Common Schools.....	158
Outline of the Prussian system of Education.....	162 }
CONTAINING—QUERIES :	to 168 }
1. On support of Seminaries of education.....	162
2. On students trained for teaching, paying for board and tuition.....	Ib
3. On term of course in the seminaries	163
4. On subjects of study.....	164
5. On extent of instruction.....	165
6. On apparatus in seminaries.....	Ib
Miscellaneous observations.....	Ib
Elementary schools.....	167
Logical exercises.....	Ib
Extracts from the Works of Miss Edgeworth.....	168 }
Extracts from Address to the Public, on improvement of Female Education, by Emma Willard.....	to 170 }
CONTAINING :	to 186 }
Address	170
Defects in present system of Female Education and their causes.....	172
Principles by which Education should be regulated.....	174
Sketch of a Female Seminary	177
Benefits of Female Seminaries.....	182
Extracts from Professor Eaton's Works.....	186
Duties and Exercises of the Rensselaer Institute.....	190 }
COMPRISING :	to 194 }
Duties of acting officers.....	190
Routine of Exercises.....	191
On the education of the Deaf and Dumb....	194
Specimens of Poetry of the Deaf and Dumb.....	198
Extracts from a circular of the New York Institution for the instruction of the deaf and dumb, 1835.....	199 }
COMPRISING :	to 209 }
Buildings, situation and accommodation.....	199
Internal organization.....	200

Division of Time.....	203
Summary of the art of instructing Deaf and Dumb.....	205
Condition of admission.....	206
Deaf and Dumb in the U. States from census of 1830.....	207
Administration of the Royal Institution.....	209
Constitution of the Pennsylvania Institution for Deaf and Dumb.....	211
By-Laws of do. do.....	213
Bulwer's France, its education.....	217
Bill appended for the government of common schools.	225



25th page

162nd Prussian System
of Education

Old Books

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52

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Duncombe, C.

Report upon the subject of education, made
to the Parliament of Upper Canada, 1836...

DATE

NAME OF BORROWER

